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INTERNATIONAL QUARTERLY JOURNAL
FEATURING ARTICLES ON COLLEGE TEACHING
WRITTEN BY COLLEGE TEACHERS

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The Editor's Uneasy Chair

Whitehead once spoke of the possibility of teaching being "too good." In old civilizations, he noted, freshness is lost in scholasticism and pedantry. He cited a time when more poets came out of Cambridge which neglected literature than out of Oxford which emphasized it. In one sense, of course, the idea is unsound because when teaching begins to lose freshness it begins not to be teaching at all.

But the warning is valid. In becoming "too good" teaching certainly can lose its force. Though most of us will feel that our teaching is not likely ever to be too good, we do well to remind ourselves where the dangers lie.

Excess of striving spoils performance in many kinds of endeavor. We need to work on technique but not rely too much upon it: the life of teaching is found in its spirit. Great teachers are remembered not for their ingenious skills but for their power to enliven. The Socratic method was mainly the natural expression of the Socratic spirit. Let us never cease to seek better and better ways to teach but always subordinate procedure to purpose.

Another danger involves the subject we teach. Any discipline, in the hands of an overzealous scholar, can be worked to death. We can become lost in details and nuances, bypaths and footnotes, incidents and episodes. We can go over our subject till even for us it palls. Our students grow indifferent or antagonistic. No discipline in itself is banal but we can make it so.

Finally, we need to subordinate ourselves. The highest praise for a teacher is not "isn't he wonderful?" but "he makes his subject fascinating" or "he makes his subject and life itself meaningful."

Probably the way to avoid these perils is to remember always that the purpose of our teaching is to nurture the minds and hearts of our students. Teaching that would be great, or even good, must SERVE. We thus escape the pitfalls of taking too seriously our methods, our subjects, or ourselves. DMG

Fraternal Blood

BEGINNING in 1861 the United States, while the world watched, was for four years "drenched in fraternal blood." The most horrible of wars are those of brothers against brothers. Yet if "of one blood all nations of men," all wars are fratricidal.

Looking round us in 1961, we see the staggering aftermath of incredible conflicts and threat of worse to come.

We see new war in which the price is blood not so much of the body as of the spirit: cold war. The carnage of 1861-65 should have been lesson enough for the whole world, but men are slow learners. After the centuries of man's upward march, despots yet oppress the wretched, demagogues betray the trustful, the blind lead the blind. And peace itself has been defined as "a pause between wars for enemy identification." Are not men called to higher things than to destroy each other?

To H. G. Wells forty years ago history had become "a race between education and catastrophe." We know even better than Wells did that the road to catastrophe is war, hot or cold.

The other road, education, is ours as teachers. Education cannot operate automatically; even computers must have men to run them. Who must operate "education"? Teachers, of course—teachers at all educational levels, and above all, the scholars, the learned and wise, the "doctors" and "masters," in short, the professors, the elite of the educational elite.

The finger has been pointed at the professors of Germany where began two world wars. Will it be, is it now, pointed at us of today? Our very learning, it is said, has produced two cultures, perhaps incapable of

comprehending each other, incompatible. Are scholars then divisive influences in a world divided? Can a divided world stand?

In this desperate time, we see that scholarship alone is not enough. We cannot rest back on the notion that adding to human knowledge will serve and save man. We know it can devastate as well as save. We

need to package our knowledge with meaning for the human needs of the nuclear age.

What meaning? Do we not know? Is not the professor a doctor of *philosophy*? Does he not know about meaning? Is he not expected to do more than impart his subject? Shall he not interpret it as well? Will not in meanings and ideas be found the power to avert catastrophe?

Seeking to give meaning to what we teach, where can we find a more effective force for unity than the concept of human brotherhood? Is there a discipline

in all of Academe which, rightly seen, has no implications for human brotherhood?

"Behold, how good and how pleasant it is for brethren to dwell together in unity!" How impossible it will be for humankind henceforth to continue except as brothers! The human mind has harnessed nuclear energy; the human mind guided by the human heart must harness human passions toward, not fratricide but peace. Are we really awake to our task?

People generally, including professors, look to political and other leaders of vision and dedication to save civilization. Who are to teach these leaders if not teachers? Who are to teach the people who should support their leadership? Who indeed but teachers, namely professors, you and I! DMG

The World Was Not Ready

"There were men in China who traveled all over the empire as preachers of love and peace . . . fifth century B. C. . . They sought to unite men through an ardent love in universal brotherhood. . . When they were reviled, they did not consider it a shame; they were intent on nothing but the redemption of men from quarrelling. They forbade aggression, and preached disarmament in order to redeem mankind from war. This teaching they carried throughout the world. They admonished princes and instructed subjects. The world was not ready to accept their teaching, but they held to it all the more firmly."

ALBERT SCHWEITZER
Christianity and the Religions of the World.
New York: The Macmillan Company, 1951.
Pages 56-57.

The Basis for Administrative Integrity



An institution will have significance and prominence if its purposes and function are embodied in a distinctive character of which decision making remains conscious. Administrative integrity and institutional integrity interact with each other. This is the conclusion of an administrator (B.A., St. Lawrence; Ed.D., Stanford), dean of evening program and director of graduate studies, who has taught, studied, and written on higher education for fifteen years, most recently on problems of organization and administration. This article develops one facet of a chapter by him to appear this fall in a new Harper & Brothers book.

By E. D. DURYEA

EFFECTIVE administration of a college or university involves more than making decisions and carrying them out in a manner which produces tangible and desired results. Over and above concrete outcomes and the more intangible activities of scholarship and research, administrative effectiveness relates to the purposes and functions of a university or college.*

From this perspective one can talk about decisions which are rational in terms of the welfare of the institution. To the extent that decisions are rational in this sense, the decision maker thinks in terms of the institution. However, his concept of the welfare of the institution, in turn, rests upon his image of what the institution is, how it functions, and which objectives it serves. Obviously, this will differ among individuals in

* An institution is more than a group of people together in a physical setting. It is distinguished, as sociologist Theodore Caplow points out, by the stable pattern of relationships associated with it and by typical features or pertinent symbols which characterize it. For purposes of this analysis, it has two other aspects which Professor W. H. Cowley has identified in his *Appraisal of American Higher Education* (unpublished, 1956). One is the arrangement for formal interaction of participants by means of a continuing structure or organization which, while changing and evolving, is identified with them. The other is a cultural tradition: the totality of attitudes, behavior patterns, and possessions, and different combinations of them, which permeate this structured aggregation of people.

It is in this sense that the term "institution" is used here. Associated with it is the "organization" or continuing structure of the institution which Cowley calls "an ordering of parts into a whole." It is the structure which relates the participants and enables them to act as a unity for defined or understood purposes. A third term "administration" we will use to designate the functioning of the organization.

a college or university to the degree that such institution lacks a clearly understood and accepted character. This character develops out of decisions which shape its organization and policies; yet each decision is made in terms of the character itself.

This analysis will examine this relationship and propose that it can give to administrative leadership an integrity of function and purpose which makes this leadership "right" for a particular college or university.

INSTITUTIONAL CHARACTER AND ADMINISTRATIVE DECISIONS

The character of a college or university presents the conglomerate of many influences: the attitudes, beliefs, traditions, and behavior patterns of individuals and groups; geographical location and physical setting; society's image; the institution's history and traditions and accepted "ways of doing things"; the student body attracted and available; sources of financial support; functions performed and type of program offered; personalities of strong individuals; nature of existing faculty members and other personnel. The environmental pressures (the external society or external culture as Professor Cowley terms it)† and the pressures of the existing character and personnel (the internal culture) meet in the decision making arena of a college or university. The outcome takes form in the continuing succession of decisions which direct the institution's development.

The effective college or university adjusts to the changing pattern of the external culture, yet does so in a manner which recognizes its own particular objectives and functions, the significant continuation of the internal culture. The result of this interaction is a character which determines the contributions an institution makes to society, to knowledge, and to the learning of its students. This constitutes the essence of intellectual leadership. To do this effectively, the decision makers have that difficult responsibility to resist what violates the central purpose and at the same time encourage the pressures which enhance it.

† Cowley points out that colleges and universities operate in larger societies which have— and are—cultures, that each college or university has a culture of its own, and that these external and internal cultures intermesh and control the activities of colleges and universities. (Op. cit., page 165.)

The last century of American higher education has demonstrated this kind of successful adaptation. The rapid shift of the nation from an essentially agrarian economy in the early 19th century to a bustling 20th century industrial civilization challenged its colleges with a drastically different set of educational needs. Despite an initial lag, higher education met this challenge successfully and evolved a diverse system of colleges and universities which function to serve nearly all phases of this expanded economy. The basic question for higher education today is whether it will prove able to continue to adapt successfully, yet remain true to the responsibility for intellectual leadership.

This adaptation has two facets: (1) Externally, the nation has shifted from the driving, pioneering, self-centered materialism to the more mature responsibilities arising from awesome technical and scientific developments and worldwide responsibilities. It needs an increasing number of highly educated and specialized technical and scientific personnel and, at the same time, informed and enlightened leaders in its political, economic, and social components. It faces the persistent emergence of problems in human, industrial, and social relations of all sorts. Concurrently, the continuing rise of real income has made the use of leisure time an important factor. (2) Internally, colleges and universities demonstrate the great increase in size and complexity exhibited by the nation's other social institutions, in business, industry, and government. The face to face relationships among participants in the early colleges has long since given way to more formalized and bureaucratic interaction. At the same time, the expansion of knowledge itself and the increase in functions performed have broken into the close-knit associations which previously gave faculties a unity in contacts with the external culture. Internal pressures have developed a variety and scope which give institutional character an increasingly complex nature. The problem of integrity for educational leadership has become correspondingly more difficult.

Historically, certain colleges expanded into large, multi-functioned universities. Others, delaying and limiting the introduction of new subjects during the 19th century, ultimately retained their character as smaller liberal arts colleges. The decisions which brought about these changes, or denied them, sometimes were major ones, such as that to accept land-grant support, to introduce

new professional schools, or to establish branches. On the other hand, probably most institutions have defined their ultimate character by a series of minor decisions on specific course offerings and degree requirements, on failure to grasp an opportunity for increased financial support or for physical expansion, on the choice of academic leaders, and similar matters. For example, a faculty, in a major decision a few years ago, voted to refuse financial support for the establishment of an undergraduate professional school. In contrast, many professional schools have evolved out of minor decisions having to do with the initial introduction of one or two courses.

Yet each decision, as it is made, reflects as well as affects the character of the institution. The decision against a new professional school certainly stemmed from a well established liberal arts philosophy. The college president who attempts to lead his organization away from the established postulates will face resistance. If he attempts changes too drastic, he may lose out entirely.

INSTITUTION AND ENVIRONMENT

The interaction of the internal and external cultures comes to focus in those not infrequent conflicts between the dominating attitudes, values, and beliefs of the external society and the internal sentiments of college and university personnel. The attitudes of analytical, intellectually oriented faculty members contrast with those held by many of the more practical minded, achieving public. The parent, for example, sends his children to college to better prepare them for material success in life. At college the students face instructors who by and large seek to stimulate their intellectual growth to a better understanding of themselves and their world and to an appreciation of cultural traditions.

This kind of divergence in attitudes, values, and beliefs regarding what a college or university should do appears across the spectrum of its operation. In athletics, alumni forces vie with faculties over the development of intercollegiate sports. Public bodies demand conformity to the opinion of a state or locality. In recent years, for example, the president of a southern university was called before a legislative investigating committee to present not only his personal attitude but that of the faculty on integration. Governing boards of business men urge the establishment of a school of business—and with the necessary financial support they sometimes have their way.

Yet, in other instances, the faculty supported by a strong liberal arts tradition on occasion successfully opposes such a change.

The disparate pressures, however, are not usually as obvious and simple. For one thing, faculty and administration do not face an array of societal pressures forcing or resisting change. Faculty and the outside community frequently mix in combinations of external and internal pressures which come together at the tables of decision making groups. Professional schools illustrate this situation. It is not uncommon to find deans and professional school faculties more closely oriented to the outside community than to their liberal arts colleagues. A different example of this situation arose a few years ago at a New York City college when the administration cancelled the speech of a Communist leader on campus. In the outcome one found outside groups allied with large segments of the faculty and students against the administration and other outside groups.*

Nor do outside forces always represent the nonprofessional public. Investigations by accrediting agencies illustrate pressures from within higher education. The threat to continued approval by a group of professionals in an accrediting association can prove as influential as attitudes of alumni, public agencies, and even state supporting bodies. A particular department may become the focal point of pressures from professional personnel in the department and institution, from the general public as voiced by an official state agency, and from outside educational forces such as professional societies. In western states, for example, a chemistry or other science department may be given responsibility by state agencies to maintain official inspection services, such as that of water pollution. At the same time, members are expected to meet the research and scholarship requirements for continued accreditation of the American Chemical Society and advance-

ment in their field of specialization and the instructional requirements of the institution.

David Riesman in his book *Constraint and Variety in American Education*† suggests another dimension by pointing out the tendency of institutions to copy other institutions. Faculty members will look to what was done in other, usually "prestige," colleges and universities not as a point of departure for a development in tune with local conditions but as a pattern for the final arrangement. Riesman illustrates the effect of such external pressure on the program of a western New York university law school as similar to that at Harvard, rather than as distinctive to conditions in the local area.

"The internal and external pressures which bear upon decision makers, therefore, reflect a variety of sources. While in general there tends to be a distinction between the external and internal, the growing intimacy between members of higher institutions and members of their local and national communities has resulted in much overlapping. To date, no effort has been made to analyze and categorize them or to evaluate their continuing relationship to higher education. Only some rather specific discussion of the composition of governing boards, the backgrounds and attitudes of faculty members, and similar studies, have appeared. This consideration forms a major area needing investigation.

In the broad spectrum, the character of each institution reflects a variety of pressures. Institutions cannot function without regard for the society in which they exist. Conversely, a conflict does exist between the desires of power elements in society to maintain the status quo and the tendency of scholars to analyze, criticize, and point out reforms. The problem for decision makers is not a compromise but a new integration of the factors involved.

ADMINISTRATIVE INTEGRITY

In terms of these pressures administrative leaders must recognize: that policies cannot transcend too much the prevailing sentiment of the internal environment if they are to be effectively implemented; that institutions cannot ignore the societal environment; and concurrently, that effectiveness in both situations requires more than just adjustment to pressures.

Thus, the decision to require certain courses as a "liberating" or "broadening" influence for

* The point has been made (by Professor Alan K. Campbell at the May 1957 American Council on Education Conference on "Faculty-Administration Relationships") that this intermingling of external and internal pressures can cause certain "built-in" conflicts within higher institutions. This would be the case when some members of the organization would have a stronger sense of identity with outside elements of society than with the values traditionally related to the internal environment. An example of this occurs when size and complexity tend to create a divergence between upper echelon administrators and faculties. The administrators associate themselves, in making judgments on institutional purposes and functions, with boards, business men, legislators, and other leaders in the general society. As a result, they come in conflict with the intellectually oriented members of their faculty. The question Professor Campbell raises is whether divergences in values of this sort will, in the long run, inevitably prevent consensus on purpose.

† Doubleday and Company, 1958. Chapter 1.

students becomes meaningless when instructors are committed to a traditional subject matter orientation and continue to teach them in terms only of major students. Conversely, the instructor who follows literally the departmental outline for his course and gives it nothing of his own personality and insights loses the respect of his students. On a broader scale, the urban, municipally supported university which attempts to maintain a completely liberal arts character without regard to its industrial community assumes the grave risk of losing essential public support. Conversely, in this situation, the university which responds only to its constituents will fail to gain that kind of academic prestige also important for public respect and support.

Effective leadership, therefore, needs an integrity of responsibility to service and to intellectual leadership as the basis for both an adjustment to the environment and of a "unifying of the internal functioning to facilitate such adjustment."* H. M. Wriston, former president of Brown University, has stressed this combination. If the college were wholly alien to its environment, Wriston wrote, "it could not perform its functions . . . On the other hand, if it yields completely to its environment, it equally fails in its objectives. It must maintain a realistic contact without compromising its essential function."* It must preserve its distinctive direction in policy while recognizing a responsibility to societal needs.

From this point of view, colleges and universities perform unique and vital functions in society. Over a period of time, these functions are conditioned by various influences which necessitate changes in educational activity if institutions are to remain vital. As pointed out above, the last hundred years of higher education illustrate fundamental shifts in the character of higher education as it has been adapted to the needs of society.† Colleges which have failed to make this shift have fallen from influence and frequently disappeared. The contrast of the modern diversified university with the single functioned small college of 150 years ago makes this quite clear. At the same time, however, the successful institutions have maintained an integrity in their purposes. Harvard and Yale, despite

their growth to large universities, exemplify institutions which have maintained positions of prominence by an adherence to basic intellectual purposes and standards. We find also many small colleges which have maintained a traditional concentration on liberal arts education. In many instances, well illustrated by Oberlin College and Wesleyan University, this adherence has proved correct.

On this basis, enlightened leadership will seek a balance between the need for integrity of purpose and the adjustment to pressures which might otherwise make an institution amorphous and directionless. Such leadership will seek both integrity and adjustment while encouraging a variety of opinion and pertinent educational functioning. The recent report of the Committee on the Educational Future of Columbia University came very close to this concept when it stressed the importance of a union of purpose amid a divergence of function as essential to relate the individual member to the organization.

ADMINISTRATIVE EFFECTIVENESS

Leadership in administration becomes effective, however, only insofar as the individual members of the organization remain organization conscious in the decision making process. This is achieved in part by a stress upon a logical, operationally sound administrative process which by its nature encourages the individual to think rationally in terms of the welfare of the institution. An equally important factor is the individual's identification with the institution and what it stands for. This means that those who participate understand the purposes for which the institution functions. But these purposes are not necessarily the formal, published statements so much as the ideas associated with what we have called here the character of the institution.

The relevant factor is the influence the character of an institution will have on the making of the decisions by which the functions of the organization are carried out.

Administrative leadership can become effective only as it relates to the character of the college or university. In its exercise it requires both a clear insight into the institutional character of a college or university and an ability to shape, to a greater or lesser degree, this character so that it supports appropriate educational objectives. In this situation, the actions and decisions of all individuals and groups tend to fit rather than be disparate to this leadership.

* Bixler, Roy W., *Institution-Faculty Relations in the College of Integrity*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1939, p. 7.

† Wriston, H. M., *The Nature of the Liberal Arts College*, Lawrence College Press, 1937, p. 20.

‡ Including the expansion of formal knowledge.

Teacher Self-Evaluation



One who measures his teaching success according to the determinable growth in his students is surely on the right track of self-evaluation. Scholar, thinker, speaker, writer, and publisher, friend of this journal and member of its editorial advisory board, the

author of the following checklist continues his valuable series of contributions.

By **ORDWAY TEAD**

Teacher evaluation is a perennially difficult process. It typically can follow one of three lines. It can be evaluation by one's colleagues and peers, by deans, or by students on some rating scale. Each has limitations and shortcomings. There can in the fourth place be some evaluation by *oneself* if, despite the fact that this is completely subjective, it can be on reasonably concrete and specific points. I suggest that the teacher can become more specific in a checking of himself if he will ask himself questions along the following lines:

- ▶ Does the student appear to have gained a good overall grasp of the subject matter?
- ▶ Does the student seem to have worked up to the limits of his powers or is he only trying to get by?
- ▶ Has the student shown an improvement in articulateness and clarity—either verbal or written?
- ▶ Does the student give evidence of improved logical powers and penetrative ability—that is, does he get quickly to the point of a problem?
- ▶ Does the student evidence greater eagerness for the life of the mind, for ideas?
- ▶ Does the student show improvement in his powers of good judgment, choice, and taste in intellectual matters?
- ▶ Has there been an improvement in esthetic sensitivity where that is appropriately called for?
- ▶ Is there improved zest and competence in student self-propulsion?
- ▶ Is there greater zest in explicit efforts at creativity?
- ▶ Is there a heightened sense of moral responsibility and discrimination?
- ▶ Is there evidenced a more conscious sense of commitment to truth seeking, moral integrity, or some other avowed basic value? Is the student beyond gains in knowledge more discriminating in value choices?

Recognizable growth in any one or several of these may usually mean that the teacher has met with some success.

Appraisal of each individual student is, of course, a subjective act. But the major aim is some estimate of improvement in one or another result of the learning process as the teacher has encouraged it and discovered its presence.

Evaluation of the student may thus in fact result indirectly in a judgment of the teacher *by the teacher* of his or her own success in teaching.

Impact of the Creative Teacher

"The impact of the creative teacher upon his class is profound. Instead of daydreaming, the students are eager to learn more. Their emotions constantly change; thus, one minute they will be skeptical of an idea, the next minute they may feel that it has a personal meaning. They become oblivious to the passing of time and, when the bell rings, they feel a sense of regret."

FREDERICK MAYER
Creative Universities
New York: College and University Press. 1961.
Page 77.

A Real University Is a Creative Center

Universities more commonly tend to spread outward than to "stress exploration in depth" says a distinguished philosopher and writer (B.A., Ph.D., Southern California) from whose recent book "Creative Universities" we are privileged, by permission of the publishers, College and University Press, to present a portion of one of the ten chapters. "What," he asks, "can be more important than the life of reason?"

By **FREDERICK MAYER**

IN EDUCATIONAL theory we must not be too intent upon correctness. Individuals who have had the most profound impact on us, like Rousseau, were anything but sound. We should rather emphasize suggestiveness, and thus we can appreciate the contribution of both Dewey and Hutchins. They shared certain ideals in common. Both were opposed to the cult of adjustment; both were in favor of independent thinking; both fought the totalitarianism of the right and the left. Both were critical of the practices of higher education as they experienced them. But Dewey favored more permissiveness in education and the use of the scientific method in all areas of inquiry, while Hutchins wanted to return to absolute truths and upheld the need for disciplined thinking.

The danger in intellectual inquiry is discipline worship. A great man demands individuality, not blind imitation. Neither Dewey nor Hutchins can be absolute guides, for the challenges in higher education today are unique and can only be solved by using new approaches and new methods. Since philosophy is a reflection upon experience, it must be constantly redefined, and all forms of idolization should be avoided.

This is not a call for eclecticism. Too many universities teach too much and have such ambitious objectives that real intensity is neglected. Greatness demands a sense of limitation. This means that we should aim for less coverage in education and instruct in a more profound way. Universities which react merely to public demands

develop mediocre talents and a mediocre philosophy of life.

Genius demands exaggeration. Instead of encouraging dilettantes, universities should stress exploration in depth. We all know the main purpose of Caltech and M.I.T., but there are hundreds of other centers of higher learning in which both the arts and the sciences are cultivated in an indifferent way.

The real battle in higher education today is not between traditionalists and progressives; it is between the conformists and those who cherish a creative view of life. *What is needed most is intensity so that scholarship becomes a way of Life, so that knowledge is humanized, and so that reason will be applied to man's social institutions.*

Too many universities lack a sense of mission and purpose. Thus, buildings are emphasized and teaching and research are neglected. Thus, public relations becomes the important goal for some administrators who dislike new ideas and who do not want to be troubled by self-examination. Thus, the student cultivates his social life rather than his studies, and athletics becomes a Leviathan which enraptures the public. Such universities may contribute to the sports sections of our newspapers, but they do not contribute to intellectual and social progress.

It should be emphasized that a university is not a social institution; *it is not a monastic retreat; it is not a paradise for technicians; it is not the protector of inert ideas; it is not a center of intellectual conformity; it is not a group of buildings without a soul; it is not a refuge for timid scholars. A real university is a creative center which anticipates the future and which has a sense of conscience and moral obligation.* It stirs its faculty to expand the bases of research. It inspires its students to avoid smugness and self-satisfaction. It creates alumni who are vital leaders and who exemplify scholarly ideals in their daily life. It vibrates with excitement, for ultimately what can be more important than the life of reason?

The Administrator's Contribution to Student Cheating



How can the administrator, remote from the classroom, be blamed when students cheat? Two college professors here share further with us in this final installment their study of student cheating. Dr. Shirk (B.A., Wilson College; M.A., Ph.D., Columbia) is associate professor of philosophy, author or co-author of two books, and of articles and reviews. Dean Hoffmann (B.A., Middlebury College; M.A., Boston) is dean of students, has co-edited and co-authored books, served in the U. S.

Navy, and contributed to journals.

By EVELYN SHIRK
R. W. HOFFMANN

THE ADMINISTRATOR contributes his share to a campus atmosphere conducive to cheating. By college "administrator" we mean such officers as the president, the various deans, the registrar, the bursar, and in fact any college officer whose duties give him a tangible or intangible influence over students and faculty from plant superintendent to the campus police. All contribute to the prevailing attitude of a campus. Furthermore, the more power and influence a particular officer has in the shaping of college policy, the greater can be his share in contributing to the incidence of cheating wherever it exists on campus.

There is abundant evidence that academic dishonesty is a function of the total climate of the institution, as are indeed many other values that students come to hold. "The incoming student," says Jacobs, "is quick to sense 'what goes' on his particular campus. He tends to follow along in the groove he finds, and in short order the pattern of his beliefs comes to bear the stamp of his institution."¹

¹ Philip E. Jacobs, *Changing Values in College* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957) p. 23.

² See Edward D. Eddy, Jr., *College Influence on Student Character* (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1959).

Administrators may not directly implant the stamp of the institution on students. Patterns of behavior, beliefs, values, attitudes are directly passed from student to student and from generation to generation. Students communicate the exact nature of the campus tradition to one another. We do maintain, however, that the administrator is responsible for a fair share of the manufacture of the "institutional stamp." The total climate of a college will make its particular impact on student character, and the administrator is partly responsible for the nature of that climate.²

The administrator's contribution toward the formation of a healthy college climate is shaped by his attitude toward several aspects of the college environment, toward the varying segments of the college totality. If the administrator—president, dean, et al.—holds and cultivates within himself attitudes conducive to integrity, then an institutional atmosphere will be created, a climate of values will prevail, in which honor, systematized or not, can exist. Without this all-pervasive climate, no system of honor can prevail with more than halfway success. A good example of what we mean is cited by Dr. Eddy:

We observed at the United States Naval Academy an interesting example of an honor concept as well as a system. The officers of the Academy subscribe to the belief that honor need not be defined in order to be expected. As a result, no code as such is used. Honor is looked upon as an all-pervading belief in personal integrity as a fundamental attribute of character. It is, therefore, a deeply rooted conviction governing all acts and speech. The unwritten law places all responsibility regarding the definition of right and wrong conduct on each individual and his conscience.³ (Italics ours)

What are these attitudes which form the stamp of a college environment? Surely the first is the administrator's attitude toward students. If a climate conducive to integrity is to prevail, there must first of all be in the mind of the administrator a recognition of and respect for the individual as a total person. A particular act, habit, oddity of appearance, accident of background or heredity are but partial delineations of a person. The individual may be momentarily disfigured or distorted by an act or habit, but he is never de-

³ Ibid., p. 87.

fined in terms of any of these single attributes. The administrator must *accept* the individual person with all of his characteristics, good or bad, and treat him in such a way that he experiences acceptance. Rogers details what we mean by "acceptance:"

By acceptance I mean a warm regard for him as a person of unconditional self-worth—of value no matter what his condition, his behavior, or his feelings. It means a respect and liking for him as a separate person, a willingness for him to possess his own feelings in his own way. It means an acceptance of and real regard for his attitudes of the moment, no matter how negative or positive, no matter how much they may contradict other attitudes he has held in the past.⁴

Secondly, the administrator must have faith in the integrity of the individual. He must believe that the person is inherently capable of honesty and that a dishonest act may be an accident of circumstances or the result of unendurable tensions. This faith is but a corollary of a larger faith in the potential goodness of the individual, which all educators must have if they are to believe in their work. Without it they become more "trainers," teachers of a routine. An administrator's faith in persons will speak to students in ways that elicit their finest potentialities. If he lacks faith, the deficiency will be detected no matter what he does or what he says. "What you are," says Emerson, "speaks so loudly that I cannot hear what you say."

Thirdly, for an attitude which fosters honesty, the administrator must permit the student to accept responsibility, and must believe in his potential ability to discharge it adequately. It is necessary for him to believe and to make it clear that he believes that under favorable conditions the student is capable of assuming the responsibility for a large share of his education. The student needs a classroom climate conducive to free thinking, free discussion, and the enjoyment of learning; he must have teachers who will encourage rather than threaten, motivate rather than satiate. Furthermore, the administrator can aid the faculty to understand the student's capabilities by the example of his own belief in them. Students deserve and have traditionally had the opportunity to participate in student government, student unions, and student affairs in general. But they also require the opportunity to play a new and significant role in the administration and policy making

of the college as a *whole*. Although both faculty and administration at some colleges may have reservations concerning this point, a good many colleges are gradually coming to realize the value of such participation.⁵

This new, expanded conception of the student role in shaping college policy implies that students are worthy of trust. Indeed, their role as students is made immeasurably more significant if they are permitted involvement in the destiny of the college. For administrators to manifest such trust adds something almost tangible to the climate of the institution, which by its addition becomes to a significant degree less accommodative of dishonesty.

There are those who would reply that such trust is not warranted; that there are cults of anti-intellectualism on college campuses; that there are the hotrodders, the jukebox set, the hipsters and the beatniks; that there is a drive toward conformity and the urge for security. We maintain, however, that there is enough evidence on the other side which, if seen in conjunction with the fact that manifest faith in the potentialities of persons has a powerful effect, is quite enough to give us hope that this generation, like any other, is worthy of trust. The administrator who cannot risk this trust helps construct an institutional stamp which sanctions doubt of persons and hence taxes personal integrity.

A fourth and final attitude toward students is necessary for an honest climate. The administrator should have perspective enough, no matter what his job, to differentiate clearly among the college, the college machinery, the college personnel, and the student, and to be able to assess the relative importance of each. There is no blanket rule but this, that normally the student should be assessed as more important than any other factor in the situation. There may be occasions, of course, when the good of the college must come before the good of a particular student, as for example the removal of a student from the campus who, because of mental illness, is potentially dangerous, even though the college experience might be conducive to his possible equilibrium. Other occasions may require some such sacrifice of the college good in favor of the student, as for example the protection of the student's privilege to speak freely in the college newspaper even though his

⁴ Carl R. Rogers, *Becoming a Person* (reprinted by the Hogg Foundation for Mental Hygiene, the University of Texas, 1956) p. 3.

⁵ See the Foreword to *The Student's Role in College Policy-Making* (a report prepared by Harry H. Lunn, Jr., for the Commission on Student Personnel of the American Council on Education).

outspokenness may bring the college into some disfavor. Very rarely, however, need the administrator's attitude include an assessment of the college machinery as more important than persons—either faculty, administration, or students. The student can accept a blow when he knows that the total good of the college demands it, but it is difficult for him to reconcile himself to an injury received because of some administrator's arbitrary and obstinate adherence to a rule. George Williams attacks this negative attitude with vigor:

He (the administrator) begins to see the university, or his part in it, as a team, a system, a machine. He forgets that a university cannot possibly afford to be an organization, that it must always be a *collection of individual human beings*. The entire business of a university is not to develop human cogs and cotter pins valuable only in relation to a larger mechanism, but to develop independent human personalities intrinsically valuable. But the administrator, eager to make a success of his job, convinced that it is vitally important that the university machine runs smoothly, asks, or rather, demands, insists, with much figurative if not actual fist-pounding that every individual within the university do his part as a cog or cotter pin in making the engine run without a sputter. The rules must not be broken, and there must be no exceptions. The welfare of the organization permits no allowance for human nature, for experiments, for mistakes, for the excesses and follies of youth; the rules do not recognize the individual and the irregular; the system makes no official provision for human sympathy, human understanding, human pity, human love, human forgiveness.*

The administrator so motivated cheats the college by robbing it of its function, cheats the faculty by reducing its activity to mechanical trivia, and cheats the student by representing him as insignificant and impersonal.

We have talked thus far about the attitude of administrators toward students. But there are other attitudes which also have an important bearing on the character of the college. The usual college administrator has at least three professional roles to play; one with students, one with faculty and one with the community at large. His attitude toward learning is exhibited in and through all of these.

The administrator's attitude toward learning is most directly and cogently revealed in his dealings with faculty. Administrative contact with faculty varies in both kind and degree and hence in kind and degree of influence it has on the total situation. The president's attitude will have considerably more influence than that of the registrar,

for instance, and yet in any and all cases the administrator should have the conviction that the primary activity of a college occurs in its classrooms. This is not to disregard or underestimate other important functions of the college: research, community support and enlightenment, the professional and personal development of faculty and staff. But if he puts a higher value on anything else than teaching, he misrepresents the function of the college and thereby contributes to general academic dishonesty.

As a result of the primacy of the classroom, the administrator needs to recognize that the faculty is the essential operating unit of the college and that the welfare of the college depends very largely on general faculty welfare and personal contentment. He must be *actually* and not just *verbally* concerned with faculty compensation, work load, and conditions of employment. And it is particularly important that he feel strongly about the desirability of good relationships between administration and faculty. It is well known that on many campuses there is an atmosphere of "administration versus faculty" frequently shared and fostered by both and almost inevitably absorbed by students. Such feeling can hardly help but vitiate the work of the faculty and frustrate the efforts of the administrator. It introduces partisan discord into the total climate of the college. Students sense this silly warfare and detect the dishonesty of its inconsistency with "official" doctrine and with the impartial search for truth to which the college environment is supposedly dedicated.

Actually, administrators *and* faculty are engaged and involved in mutually shaping the todays and tomorrows of the college. One cannot abrogate this fact and expect honesty to prevail among *any* of the inhabitants of a campus. And when facts are controverted, personal honesty is in jeopardy.

Third, while the administrator's attitude has traditionally included a high regard for the instruments of learning, it very frequently, in these days of inflation, tends to make these into ends in themselves. While the physical plant, library facilities, etc., are tremendously important, a college is not composed entirely or even primarily of these. To sacrifice faculty salaries or an important but not heavily enrolled course to these considerations is to make the garments of learning into the fact of learning and to misplace emphasis, abetting a contemptuous attitude on the part of the entire college toward the real goal of a college.

* George Williams, *Some of My Best Friends are Professors* (New York: Abelard-Schuman, 1958) p. 197.

Finally, the administrator is required to have an appropriate attitude toward the college which he serves—toward its place in the world of education, its place in the community, and perhaps primarily toward its place in his own life and heart. If he is to contribute positively and constructively to the institutional atmosphere, he must respect, regard, and even love the institution of which he is a part. If not nourished to some extent by wells of affection, a man's job tends to be routinely and coldly performed. Lack of dedication is reflected into the atmosphere of the college and promotes a tradition of cynicism hardly consistent with integrity.

Academic dishonesty among students, then, is a function of the total structure of values of the institution, which includes the administrator's attitudes toward the many interrelated aspects of college functioning. By failing to contribute constructively to a healthy climate, the administrator betrays the goals of the college and provides an example for students to betray them after their own fashion.

Perhaps a critical analysis of academic dishonesty requires some constructive suggestions for practical application of some of the principles enunciated.

Obviously very few colleges have a fully satisfactory climate of values. Some approach it, however, and even those which fall far short seek programs for improvement. The fact that administration and faculty can recognize a need to seek a better climate seems to have a pronounced effect on student values.

We would contend that an "honor system" alone is not enough, that it cannot be effective unless it is reinforced by a general college commitment to integrity in the many forms in which we have outlined it. The nearer the college approaches a cooperative effort to make honor possible, the more certain it can feel about the success of any student honor "system."

But failure to achieve an atmosphere hospitable to honor is the rule. Beyond the reasons attributable to personal failure which have so far been mentioned lie others in the very situation in which the college finds itself. First, the age of the college is a factor: firm establishment of traditions, customs, and codes takes time. New colleges have first to build an atmosphere on which they can rely. Older colleges can often discard formal codes and trust the weight of tradition itself. Second, a commuting college would have con-

siderably more difficulty establishing a workable honor system than a dormitory college because of the continual reassertion of family and local values to which the student is exposed. A military or church related college might well have an easier time because of its commitment to an ideal which gives it its *raison d'être*. But in any case, a total college atmosphere conducive to honor exists in different degrees on different campuses. No rules regarding how to proceed are legislatable for all. Each must take stock of its present and particular efforts to meet this goal in order to determine best how to move forward. Our first suggestion lies just here. There is no substitute for cooperative self-evaluation by students, faculty, and administration to determine what is lacking and how best to remedy the deficiency.

It is entirely conceivable that the traditional punitive system is best in a college that has some reason to distrust its climate of integrity. To confront students with an already unsuccessful honor system is to reaffirm their belief in the effectiveness of the view that anything is permissible if one doesn't get caught. But the punitive code is at best a poor solution. Yet we are well aware that there may be no other available alternative. Furthermore, even with favorable conditions, a long established system of police-and-punishment can be relinquished only gradually, with anxiety, and frequently with frustration and disillusionment as well. But one either aims at relinquishing it and absorbs the cost or one fails to some extent in the job of education.

For those colleges who feel able to take the risk there is an intermediate step based on two general principles consistent with all we have said. First, there should be greater concern to provide remedial work with the student cheater and less focus on his punishment. Second, there should be greater student participation in the remedial efforts and less restriction of this task to faculty and administration.

The idea of student participation in procedures for apprehending and punishing the student cheater is not new. Many campuses utilize systems whereby students police their confrères. Many colleges support honor boards and courts of student justice administered by students. But this is a departure from traditional practice only in the sense that students are deputized to perform in the misdirected way that faculty and administration have traditionally reserved for themselves. We are suggesting not a mere alteration of *form*

but a reconstruction of *spirit, purpose, and direction* in the procedures for dealing with the cheater, which students as well as faculty and administration are all called upon to share.

The emphasis we consider vital is that the cheater be looked upon as a victim of circumstances and in need of aid. Among other advantages of this method of attack is that of being able to ascertain from the offender himself just wherein a campus atmosphere serves dishonesty and just wherein it needs repair. Insofar as students, faculty, and college officials are all involved in ameliorative efforts, a better climate is more likely to eventuate.

The plan we want to propose is three sided:

- ▶ First, for extreme cases and repeaters perhaps the only resort is a punitive code administered by the dean of students with the help of an honor board made up of faculty and students. The board could adapt the usual procedures of trial and punishment as much as possible to be consistent with its revised conception of the nature of cheating conduct.
- ▶ Second, all others might best be interviewed by a council of selected students conducted by a professional group leader devoted to the principle that the purpose of the interview is to aid the offender understand his motivations. Discussions would rest on a nonjudgmental, student centered basis in method while their content would center around values in general and honesty in particular.
- ▶ Third, we suggest a before-and-after counseling session between the offender and the dean of students.

This is a modification of a system used by Brigham Young University, as described by Dr. Eddy:

Brigham Young University has turned its disciplinary procedure into an interesting and apparently successful emphasis on helping the offender recognize the moral consequences of his error, as well as emphasizing the group's responsibility for the individual's misconduct. The honor system operates through two honor councils—the student group which handles typical student cases, and a combined student-faculty council which assumes responsibility for those cases

referred to it by the student group as too involved or too serious for a student group to handle alone. The unusual aspect of the student council is that it does not hand down punitive measures for violations of good conduct and taste. A student who has erred is not viewed as a criminal. Instead he is felt to lack an adequate understanding of the ethical and moral implications of his actions and the effect they may have on his future life. Each student is counseled by his fellow students on the honor council in the hope that he will recognize the violation of ethics involved and the possible consequences. If attempts at counseling fail, the violator is then referred to the faculty committee for possible punitive action. The majority of cases so handled involve chronic offenders.⁷

The system we recommend has these points of difference: first, in temper, in the sense that both council members and offenders share equally in discussion rather than interpreting the situation as one in which the council has the major responsibility. Second, in structure, in the sense that the council will include a trained group leader from faculty or administration and not be limited to students alone who may not be able so skillfully to set the tone. Third, in intensity, in that the dean of students would have a personal interview with the offender before as well as after his session with the council.

In its emphasis on remedy rather than on punishment and in its implied insistence that honor, and action which serves it, are the affair of an entire campus, including students, we believe that the counseling-centered program drawing alike on students and faculty to share the cooperative venture of self-improvement is a giant step toward a climate of values in which honor, whether codified or systematized or not, can live and breathe.

⁷ Op cit., p. 88.

The Archives of History

"The poets made all the words, and therefore language is the archives of history, and, if we must say it, a sort of tomb of the muses. For, though the origin of most of our words is forgotten, each word was at first a stroke of genius, and obtained currency, because for the moment it symbolized the world to the first speaker and to the hearer. The etymologist finds the deadest word to have been once a brilliant picture. Language is fossil poetry."

EMERSON
The Poet

A Search for Meaning



Of all human endeavor, education as an intellectual process ought to be based on clear cut, well determined purpose. Yet professors and institutions alike are found confused and aimless, students even more so. It is "a manifestation of a similar situation in our larger life as a people," according to a professor (A.B., M.A., Ph.D., Ohio State) who was a history and philosophy major, teaches philosophy of education and interdepartmental social science, was a member of the UNESCO Technical Assistance program in Ecuador, and is chairman of the John Dewey Society Commission on Publications in Educational Theory. He reports for us "a modest effort to help thirty young teachers in the search for a sense of purpose."

By ARTHUR G. WIRTH

"Men will happily tolerate great discomfort, discontinuity and frustration if—and only if—they are working for some purpose, toward some end, which they consider wise, true, exciting and meaningful."

THIS is a report of a modest effort to help thirty young teachers engage in the search for a sense of purpose for their lives and work—and of one promising lead encountered in the quest.

The author was teaching a graduate course at Brooklyn College entitled "Education and Culture in the United States." The students consisted of thirty teachers from the New York area. For the most part they were in the first three years of their professional careers. The nature of their teaching situations spanned the incredible spectrum of life experiences of the metropolitan area—the polyglot populations of Manhattan's lower east side, the chaos of the newer Negro "community" of Bedford-Stuyvesant in Brooklyn, middle class Jewish sections of Flatbush, and the suburban melting pot of third generation Americans in Long Island's Nassau County.

These beginning teachers clearly had their problems. In the main, the problems derived from

the strains that accompany tremendous population and community changes—compounded by the social neglect of the schools. Most of these are familiar and need not detain us at length. They include: overcrowded classrooms with a lack of essential materials; unruly, hostile, or bored behavior of students, often reflecting the disorganization and violence in neighborhood and family life; low morale of senior colleagues—sometimes merging into cynicism. At the personal level: financial problems and the pressures of assuming heavy professional responsibilities while taking on the intricate demands of marriage and family relationships.

The positive resources to which beginning teachers may turn often are not inconsiderable. These include the existence here and there of sensitive and helpful administrators, and the launching of imaginative programs by the Board of Education even though these founder all too often as good intentions permit over-extension of efforts in terms of resources available.

The point here, however, is that the life of the beginning teacher contains a full share of "discomforts, discontinuities, and frustrations" and, if there is truth in the contention of the opening quotation, these could be borne adequately only if accompanied by a sense of working for truly meaningful ends or purposes.

The sober truth is that the relation of these teachers to a clear and high sense of purpose is in a parlous condition. When they are confronted with the questions of ends or purposes, they may react with embarrassment, or several might come forward somewhat feebly with a few banal comments about "democracy" or "freedom." They subside quickly, however, when confronted by quizzical eyebrows or snorts of derision by their colleagues. I am not prepared to say, nor do I believe, that there is a real absence of values and guiding ideals but it is true that there is a disturbing inarticulateness in giving expression to any.

We would do well to recognize that the condition of teachers in this respect is merely a manifestation of a similar situation in our larger life as a people. As a matter of fact "the lack of purpose" subject has been getting plenty of attention by social commentators and important publications. Dr. Harold Taylor, for example,

¹ Keniston, Kenneth, "Alienation and the Decline of Utopia," *The American Scholar*, Spring 1960, p. 181.

upon returning from five months abroad declared recently, "I have returned to find my country in a state of aimlessness and confusion rare in history, a confusion of aims which comes close to anarchy."² Or Kenneth Keniston, in a remarkably perceptive article, maintains that the vocabulary of social commentary is dominated by terms like: alienation, estrangement, withdrawal, indifference, disaffection, noninvolvement, neutralism, and that "the *direction* of cultural change is from commitment and enthusiasm to alienation and apathy."³ Such august publications as the *New York Times* and *Life* magazine cofeatured recently a major series on national purpose or lack of it.

While the present author is skeptical of the efficacy of such an approach of trying to breathe a hot sense of purpose into us by broadcasting impressive pronouncement by eye-catching national figures, his experience with thirty young American adults this summer convinced him that the problem is real enough. It needs attention by all of us—for our own sakes even more than for "the nation's purposes." It probably can be managed with some success only by painful, candid searching with a few fellow-seekers—and beyond that in the quiet persistent questing of one's own inner life.

The present condition of skeptical noncommitment is by no means, however, an unmixed evil. It may contain the seeds of sound health. This resides in the fact that today's young people really care enough and are stubbornly honest enough not to permit themselves to be taken in by spurious or irrelevant sloganeering. Besides, the last several generations have seen idealistic visions too often and too brutally shattered before their eyes to be eager customers for others. So, where values are concerned, they make clear enough that their attitude is "Let the seller beware." In fact, "the sell" is out with them. For this, we owe them respect.

They do know, though, that something is lacking. They are bothered by it. They have a good sense of what they don't need: the ad man's exhortations, or the earnest but no longer relevant slogans forged in bygone circumstances. They may become slightly uneasy under the efforts of hurt oldtimers to make them feel guilty for not rallying behind ancient, battle scarred banners. Their refusal to join is rooted perhaps in the feeling that to do so when these no longer fit

the realities in their own lives would be to make a mockery both of the causes and of themselves.

Their skepticism should not be so surprising. After all they have lived their lives in the culture of the big sell. To survive with some sense of personal integrity it has been necessary that they acquire skepticism similar to the villagers who had heard the cry "wolf" too often. When *every* toothpaste is hawked as being the scientifically efficacious one, who will believe it when one comes along with valid evidence to support its claims? For whatever reasons, the hallowed slogans of the culture—"free enterprise," "free way of life," "social justice," "the democratic way"—have taken on a jaded quality and fail to move our young people. We may lament it, because it is true that genuine value obtains in many of the slogans, but the lament itself is ineffectual.

All this does not mean that these young teachers are without fight and courage, even though they have sinking feelings at the sight of older colleagues who seem to have lost these qualities. They are willing still to give of themselves. It is interesting to note the concern they show about the commitment that appears to be present in Russian students and teachers. They reject the Communist goals, but envy the condition where the individual—teacher or otherwise, presumably is made to feel that *he* is needed urgently for the accomplishment of important ends. They wish that they *honestly* could say they had such feelings. In the absence of these, the sobering question remains how long can such young people work with professional skill and verve, in the face of problems of discouraging magnitude?

If one wishes to work with them in this area what approach is possible? To what sources may one turn? The truth is that probably none of us clearly knows the way in our troubled condition. The effort here will be confined to reporting on one source which seemed to offer some promise. We did not find the philosopher's stone but we were engaged in the right quest.

The first principle, and a good one, is that today's students will become involved in a genuine discussion of values and meaning only if it has an authentic ring for them. It was exactly this quality which led to the deep hold Camus had on this generation—for he refused to engage in mere learned chatter; he insisted on raising relentlessly the really pressing questions, no matter how far they intruded on forbidden ground.

The writer whom we now wish to consider

² Quoted in *The Unitarian Register*, Midsummer 1960, p. 38.

³ Keniston, *op. cit.*, p. 162.

is one who seems to have a similar kind of appeal. He is Dr. Viktor E. Frankl, the Viennese psychiatrist, who since World War II has become the leading spokesman for the school of therapy known as logotherapy. His two main works translated into English are: *The Doctor and the Soul* and *From Death Camp to Existentialism*. Dr. Frankl spent the years of World War II in Auschwitz and other Nazi concentration camps under the most trying conditions that modern man has had to endure. So far as civilization is concerned the whole tradition of Western values was smashed and reversed in these camps. As for the individual, the only thing he could look forward to with confidence was almost certain death. It was under these conditions that Frankl developed his values to live by.

In these extreme situations the ultimate question was to find a meaning to life and to account for the meaning of death. Man was compelled by his own will to render this account so that he could stand upright and die in a manner somewhat worthy of a human being.⁴

Tested under these circumstances there is no possibility of sham. Frankl has won a right to a hearing. This, in part, may account for his appeal to the students.

An account of his basic theory in the space available must remain primarily suggestive. The interested reader must have recourse to the writing of Frankl where his theory is elaborated at length.

Frankl's own life experience and his work as a psychiatrist have led him to hold that a fundamental problem of contemporary Western man is his struggle for a meaning to his existence. The theory of logotherapy which Frankl helped to establish is offered as a supplement (not a substitute) for psychotherapy and is concerned with helping patients to find such a meaning.

We want to teach our patients what Albert Schweitzer has called reverence for life. But our patients can only be persuaded that life has unconditional value if we can manage to give them some content for their lives, if we can help them find an aim and a purpose in their existence—in other words, if they can be shown the task before them. "Whoever has a reason for living endures almost any mode of life," says Nietzsche. . . . "Having such a task makes the person irreplaceable and gives his life the value of uniqueness."⁵

It is held that a frustration of man's will-to-meaning may lead to neurotic illness which Frankl

calls existential frustration.

Frankl holds, however, that the *wrong* way to seek a resolution of the problem of meaning is to ask directly. "What is the meaning of life?"

I have said that man should not ask what he may expect from life, but should rather understand that life expects something from him. It may also be put this way: in the last resort, man should not ask "What is the meaning of my life?" but should realize that he himself is on trial. Life is putting its problems to him, and it is up to him to face these problems by shouldering his responsibility thus answering for his life.⁶

One may well ask then, "What is Life expecting of me?" The answer begins with the premise that "Life is not anything; it is only the opportunity for something."⁷

And what is man's special, unique opportunity? It is the opportunity for creating and realizing value, and in so doing, the individual finds his own life acquiring meaning.

Frankl suggests three general categories of values:

- First, men can give meaning to their lives by realizing *creative values*, by acting, working, building, planning, and executing. We might call this the Goethian mode.
- Next, Man can gain meaning by values realized in experience—*experiential values*. These are realized by receptivity toward the world, for example, in surrender to the beauty of nature or art: the mode of appreciation and contemplation.
- Finally there are *attitudinal values*. Life can be basically meaningful even when it is neither fruitful in creation nor rich in experience—even when one finds himself in such distress that neither significant action nor "experiencing" is available, such as when one is confronted with an incurable illness or the entrapment by extremely discouraging life circumstances not subject to change.

What is significant is the person's attitude toward an unalterable fate. The opportunity to realize attitudinal values is always present whenever a person finds himself confronted by a destiny toward which he can act only by acceptance. The way in which he accepts, the way in which he bears his cross, what courage he manifests in suffering, what dignity he displays in doom and disaster, is the measure of his human fulfillment.⁸

Thus, life has a meaning to the last breath. For the possibility of realizing values by the very attitude with which we face our destined suffering—this possibility exists to the very last moment. . . . The right kind of suffering—facing your fate without flinching—is the highest achievement that has been granted to man.⁹

The basic contention is that man, who is a recipient of life, is basically responsible for bring-

⁴ Ibid., p. xiv.

⁵ Ibid., p. 130.

⁶ Ibid., p. 50.

⁷ Ibid., p. xii. One may recall Tolstoy's powerful treatment of this point in *The Death of Ivan Ilyich*.

⁸ Frankl, Viktor E., *From Death Camp to Existentialism*, p. 104.

⁹ Frankl, Viktor, *The Doctor and the Soul*, pp. 61-2.

ing to it that which he is especially equipped to create: values. The question as "to what" a person should feel responsible is left open—whether to his God or his conscience or his society or whatever higher power.

Space prohibits here an elaboration of the treatment of the question as to how each individual is to discover what *his* unique task is to be.

I am simply reporting that the reactions to Frankl by the young teachers in my class was strong and genuine. He seemed to strike a chord to which they could respond—in a way markedly different from their reactions to literature on educational goals and purposes.

It is perhaps better to leave it to the reader

to account for this phenomenon. A factor that clearly did seem to be involved was that Frankl gave them a keen sense of their own unique capacity for creating value and gaining meaning. Each teacher, without exception, within this framework is capable of attaining significant meaning in the acts of his daily life—and he is responsible for being and doing what *he* can be and do. So, too, is each of his pupils.

All of this provides a locale for the seeking of meaning and purpose different from public pronouncements or hallowed documents. It places the problem and the possibilities inside the heart of each of us—which is perhaps the most critical "new" frontier of our present moment.

Character

"The reason why we feel one man's presence, and do not feel another's is as simple as gravity. Truth is the summit of being: justice is the application of it to affairs. All individual natures stand in a scale, according to the purity of this element in them. The will of the pure runs down from them into other natures, as water runs down from a higher to a lower vessel. This natural force is no more to be withstood, than any other natural force. We can drive a stone upward for a moment into the air, but it is yet true that all stones will forever fall; and whatever instances can be quoted of unpunished theft, or of a lie which somebody credited, justice must prevail, and it is the privilege of truth to make itself believed. Character is this moral order seen through the medium of an individual nature. An individual is an encloser."

EMERSON
Character

What Is It We Seek?



Should faculties be stratified into academic ranks? Abolishment of rank seems the only way to destroy the fine network of undesirable results that accompany it, says a member of an Art faculty (A.B., Florida State; M.A., Ed.D., Columbia) who has taught at all

levels in public education, five years in college, has exhibited in nine juried and five unjuried group shows, and won sculpture awards in both this country and Europe. Rank distinction is so universal that its evil fruits pass unnoticed or are ascribed to other causes, she says and cites one college that does not maintain a hierarchy of rank.

By MILDRED ZINDLER

THE THREAT to academic freedom from the nonacademic world has obliterated a condition within the academic world which negates completely the ideology supposedly encompassed by any statement of academic freedom. I refer to the deleterious and yet generally accepted hierarchy of academic rank. It seems to me that this system is the greatest saboteur of all the particulars we hold essential in academic life. According to our champion, the A.A.U.P., there are certain aspects of academic life that we must guard jealously. These include intellectual freedom and freedom in teaching. Yet, because of the extreme pressures exerted by the rank system, a faculty member is often denied these rights in his pursuit of excellence as an individual, as a teacher, and as a constituent of an academic organization.

Those who would defend academic rank imply that the possibility of promotion in ranks acts as an incentive to aspiring candidates. Woodburne claims that through this means true effectiveness is rewarded and staff morale greatly improved. I am certain that this is indeed the way in which this psychological bit of pin-a-star-on-me is supposed to function. The point is, however, that it just doesn't. Instead a highly competitive system evolves which defeats its very purpose of spurring to greater heights of academic achievement, for the competitors are not reaching for better teaching and more scholarship. They are reaching for the prestige and economic security which

accompanies rank, and who can truly say he is not interested in both? Economic security accrues to rank through salary advance and tenure. Prestige, both social and academic, also advances with rank. Prestige, according to Jersild, is associated with a concept of self which in turn is dependent on the way others see us. Therefore a person has prestige if he has achieved something which in the eyes of others is desirable. This is called success. In the academic world, success is measured by promotion in rank—which affords prestige—which bolsters concept of self, since it implies the acquisition of something held desirable by others. This, then, removes acquisition of prestige through rank from the lofty idea of unselfish advancement of learning, and abruptly places it face to face with the earthy demand of the ego, to be held in esteem by self and by others. If this egocentric struggle also resulted in advancement of the cause of good teaching and scholarship, then the rank system could be called successful. But what actually does happen? Diekhoff has said, "... if faculty members are promoted for scholarship, they will write. If they are promoted for conscientious performance of committee assignments and the like, they will take seriously their extraclassroom duties. If they are promoted for effective teaching, they will try to teach better."¹ In other words, it is for the promotion and its adherent benefits that these are undertaken, not for their own value. A teacher is forced into a position in which his successful undertakings in teaching or in research become commodities to be exchanged for benefits received. In most cases, the commodity acceptable for exchange is scholarly publication. This results in a great deal of useless and unimportant research by men and women who could be doing a great deal of important teaching. Since as yet no means of determining good teaching has been developed, lip service only is paid to the excellent teacher; advance in rank and salary is paid for the number of papers published. The natural effect of this is that good teachers, who also desire the human fulfillments of physical and emotional security, are forced to spend less time on their teaching duties, undertaking instead research in which they have little or no interest and which will be at

¹ Diekhoff, John S., *The Domain of the Faculty in Our Expanding Colleges*, p. 87.

best an uninspired work. What it amounts to is being hired for one job and paid for another. That this does exert a tremendous strain can be illustrated:

... it was clear that his really tremendous work with this student group hadn't been weighted at all in the considerations of his promotion. He did a really tremendous job. It caused the rest of us to decide that if this kind of activity was not what was honored, then we'd do what was honored—namely, sitting in the library and writing weighty papers, and let their goddamned student group go to hell, which it has.²

Not until full professorship is attained may a man shift emphasis from rising in rank in order to insure fulfillment of his basic needs. Then perhaps it is possible to give complete attention to the *teaching position* he holds and *its fulfillment*. What are an individual's chances of reaching this enviable goal? According to Caplow,³ the odds against promotion to associate professorship are six to one. Odds against reaching full professorship are even greater. The mental anxiety that such figures must arouse, the resultant feelings of do-or-die, are certainly not conducive to quiet devotion to intellectual work. By far the largest portion of college teachers are spending their lives in this continuous and often hopeless struggle. Either that, or they leave the profession, often to the profession's loss.

Anything that affects its members so radically must invariably have an important effect on the institution. In the recent study made by the Association for Higher Education concerning conditions of work, faculty members expressed as most important the opportunity afforded by their institutions for teaching and service to education.⁴

Yet the system of ranks as it exists disallows maximum performance in this area at the institutional as well as individual level. The most important division of a college is the department. Herein lies the dilemma. A department head is usually a senior member who has attained professorial rank. It is he who for the most part determines department policy, assignments, promotion, etc. It goes without saying that with such a system a man would have to be a fool to express anything contrary to that policy. It is true that many departments in many colleges employ the cooperation of the *senior* members in formulating policy. *Junior* rankers are most often not included or even considered a real part of the department. As one person puts it, junior members will have to move on, so why include them. (This situation is most applicable to institutions which have set limits on the numbers to attain a given rank.)

Unless quality marches with age, many valuable contributions from junior members must be lost. And such a policy would certainly curb

any initiative or desire to serve on the part of these displaced persons. That all is not solid cooperation can be readily seen:

Not all ill feeling, however, is between the public and the faculty. We on the faculty envy each other . . . If the head of a department is unproductive, it is dangerous to publish an article; if your senior gives no grade lower than a B, and you give two D's, your job is in jeopardy—you are an inefficient teacher. . . .⁵

In the middle of all this is the almost forgotten man, the student. He finds himself at the mercy of instructors who are preoccupied with duties more pressing than teaching. I have heard this carried to such an extreme that the professor concerned felt irritated that he must stop whatever he was doing so that he could meet his class. For such a person, the rank system carries a super-star toward which he may aspire: classes only for graduate students, with no need to be troubled with the gropings of undergraduates.

Something is wrong with such a concept of teaching, and after all teaching is the first concern even at the college level. Again I state that I feel the underlying enigma is academic rank. Abolishment of rank seems the only way to destroy the fine network of undesirable results that accompany it. Sarah Lawrence took this step in the early days of its existence. The main purpose as stated by Dr. Cracken, a board member, was to "abolish any high seat at the table of learning," and by reducing the striving for position help preserve the fresh eagerness characteristic of the faculty of his experimental college. To carry out such a readjustment of human relations within the college hierarchy would lift the stifling effect of a reward concept that does not serve its purpose. It also might restore to the teaching profession a sense of worthiness and dignity.

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⁵ Wilson, L., *The Academic Man*, p. 131.

² Caplow, T., *The Academic Marketplace*, p. 83.

³ Ibid., p. 223.

⁴ Association for Higher Education, Special Project, Conditions of Work for College Faculty and Administrators.

The Psychology of Bad Teaching



Is bad teaching sometimes caused by, not lack of subject knowledge or lack of proper method, but a "natural" or "innate" drive to poor teaching? Society in general "applauds the bad teacher" says an assistant professor (B.A., St. Olaf College; M.A., Min-

nesota) whose field is English education and who has taught in high school and in two colleges. His article is thoughtful and provocative and merits reading even by those who would not fit the classification of "bad teacher."

By HUGO HARTIG

OFTEN we are inclined to believe and to teach student teachers to believe that much poor teaching, if not the result of inadequate knowledge of subject matter, is the result of inadequate knowledge of teaching method. But it seems likely that there is a third cause for poor teaching that may be more significant than the others. This is what might be identified as the "natural" or "innate" drive to poor teaching which must be overcome before good teaching becomes possible.

If we accept the basic psychological principle that it is normal human behavior to do those things that tend to give us personal satisfaction, and to avoid doing those things that threaten our self-esteem, or that frustrate us, then it can be demonstrated that there does indeed exist an innate drive to poor teaching. For good teaching by its very nature often results in teacher frustration, at least on a short term basis. Good teaching also tends frequently to reduce the authority status of the teacher, both in the eyes of students and in his own eyes.

We do not have to be told by sociologists and psychologists that in our society prestige and status are important motivations for behavior. All of us wish to "be somebody," to impress others with our importance, and to exercise power and control over other people. It would be dishonest to deny that most if not all teachers gain much personal satisfaction in exercising authority and control over others in the classroom. Yet in this there is a very real threat to good teaching, if it is carried to the point of self-indulgence. The teacher who "uses" his captive audiences to prop

up his own ego and to vent his frustrations may be improving his own mental health, but at the expense of his students. Often, of course, students may cooperate in being thus used, and in a sense prostitute themselves for the sake of political expediency or a good grade. But if they have any self-respect at all they will also resent being made to play the role of toady or sycophant and will respect neither the teacher nor his motives. The end result, of course, will be the development of a pupil-teacher relationship that will be a great hindrance to effective learning.

Good teaching requires maturity on the part of the teacher. He has to be self-confident enough, secure enough, and "big" enough to be able to teach with humility, thinking not so much of his own ego-needs and satisfactions as of the needs of his pupils. Unfortunately, some teachers on all levels are simply not mature enough or secure enough to meet the requirement. Particularly on the college level do we find evidences of this kind of intellectual pride and insecurity, possibly because it is so easy to overawe the undergraduate with a powerful but empty display of learning. Public school children, on the other hand, are not so easily impressed.

To the extent that teachers are personally insecure, then, for any reason, they are tempted to teach in an authoritarian manner and will try to build up their self-esteem at the expense of their pupils. But teachers are also tempted to teach badly because of ego-centrism. Good teaching is often frustrating, because it is not pleasant to stand by and watch a pupil do a poor job of explanation or recitation when a teacher could do a much better job. Simply to avoid frustration, then, many teachers prefer to do everything themselves. They want good thinking to take place in their classrooms, so they do the thinking themselves and do not permit any bad thinking. But obviously if a teacher insists on doing all the thinking for a pupil, and will not permit him to think for himself, simply because student thinking may not be up to the teacher's standard, the pupil will not get much opportunity to learn. If pupils learn by making mistakes, then they ought to be given an opportunity to make mistakes, even if this seems to lower the intellectual level of the classroom. No doubt some teachers conduct classes which are on an extremely high level of excel-

lence, and which would meet the most exacting subject matter standards. But if this excellence is entirely the teacher's creation, and the students have little or nothing to do with it, one may legitimately question what good it is.

Laziness also enters into this picture. Not only can a teacher avoid frustration by doing everything himself; he can also avoid work. For certainly it is much easier to do a thing yourself (when you know how) than it is to try to get someone else to do it. Pupils, too, will cooperate enthusiastically in this kind of avoidance of work, for from their standpoint it is much less difficult merely to watch a teacher perform than to dig in and do things for themselves. It is sad, but true, that most students would rather be bored than challenged. Challenge produces tension, and tension is unpleasant. Boredom, on the other hand, has a certain tranquilizing effect. And of course one can justify it on the ground that it develops strength of character. A good many teachers and pupils operate on this principle, and will mildly resent any implication that they are wasting their time.

Finally, good teaching requires risk taking. The teacher who teaches his pupils to think critically must himself be capable of this dangerous and unpopular activity. This means that he does not always knuckle under to public opinion nor avoid unsafe or controversial issues. He does not always worry about what people will think. He does not always go out of his way to court the favor either of his pupils or of his superiors. He may even defend a point of view that he himself does not subscribe to if he feels that this

will challenge his students. The possibility or probability of being misunderstood does not frighten him, for he knows and accepts the fact that good teaching is bound to be misunderstood by some people. The bad teacher, on the other hand, is satisfied to be safe and secure, and it does not even occur to him that he is engaged in a battle where courage counts.

Society in general applauds the bad teacher. His insecurity is called leadership; his egocentrism is called enthusiasm; his laziness is called competence; his conformism is called mature judgment. Generations of bad teaching have produced a stereotype of the teacher which he represents perfectly. He makes his kids work . . . he teaches respect and develops character . . . he trains minds . . . his classes are quiet and orderly, and his pupils know that he means business . . . he is consistent, and people know what to expect from him . . . he is fair but firm . . . he covers his subject, and no one doubts that he knows it thoroughly . . . above all he does not upset his pupils with dangerous thoughts nor mislead them with radical opinions . . . his classroom is not an experimental laboratory nor are his pupils guinea pigs . . . he does not need to experiment because he knows what he is doing and what he ought to do.

Yet in the face of many pressures and strains toward bad teaching there are really many good teachers. Most teachers have managed to rise above the temptations to do the easy or the popular thing. Perhaps the most significant thing about the psychology of bad teaching is that it applies only to a minority of teachers.

The Weight of Its Own Progress

"Mankind lies groaning, half crushed beneath the weight of its own progress. Men do not sufficiently realize that their future is in their own hands. Theirs is the task of determining first of all whether they want to go on living or not. Theirs is the responsibility, then, for deciding if they want merely to live, or intend to make just the extra effort required for fulfilling, even on their refractory planet, the essential function of the universe, which is a machine for the making of gods."

HENRI BERGSON
The Two Sources of
Morality and Religion
New York: Henry Holt and Company
1935. Page 306.

Making Teaching More Effective



Knowing what effective teaching is and what it requires is not the problem. The problem is to get something really done about it. A statewide project is described by an associate executive dean (A.B., Colgate; M.A., Ph.D., Duke) of a system of state community colleges.

A teacher who generates enthusiasm, he suggests, may work miracles. This article is reprinted by permission from the Junior College Journal.

By **MARVIN A. RAPP**

INSTITUTIONS of higher education, like all schools, exist for purposes of learning. Involved in this is, of course, teaching, research, and other goals of education. In the two-year colleges, teaching has particular emphasis. For a variety of reasons—historical, educational, psychological, and organizational—superior teaching should be a hallmark of community or junior colleges. Primary emphasis on quality teaching in these colleges rather than on the other accepted goals of higher education helps better to meet the demonstrated need of students at that stage of their educational development, intellectually, emotionally, and physically. Consequently this objective has been and remains a prime characteristic of the community or junior college. To prevent this fact from becoming myth, in the face of a growing shortage of qualified instructors in many fields, the growing number of qualified students in all fields, and the increasing demand for greater educational preparation in all aspects of modern living, continuing attention must be given to maintaining and improving constantly the quality of instruction in these institutions.

Out of pride for the teaching job being done in the Community Colleges and Agricultural and Technical Institutes of the State University of New York, rather than out of adverse criticism, an extensive and intensive program for the improvement of teaching was designed and implemented by and among these institutions of higher learning on the implied predication that teaching, no matter how effective, could always be made even better. Casual perusal of the field of better

teaching reveals so much talk, so much writing, so little action, and so little improvement. The administrative leadership of State University charged with the responsibility of the two-year institutions determined to try to really do something about this vital problem. The program devised was in specifics not particularly unusual. It may all have been thought of before. It is, however, in certain of its areas of intensiveness and comprehensiveness, somewhat unique.

In a decentralized type of university like the State University of New York, encompassing as it does two-year institutions with varying degrees of autonomy, the exercise of educational leadership by the statewide administrators presents immediately a structural problem. In solving this problem, however, other favorable results accrue. In a decentralized organization consideration of any academic problem enjoys the advantages of individual institutional faculty contributions as well as the combined contributions of all the institutions when each shares with the others in a group dynamics situation. To conform to the organizational set-up of State University and to gain the advantages of unity without uniformity, a pyramidal organization of workshops was structured starting with the teacher in the classroom and ending with a statewide conference of all of the faculties of the two-year institutions of the State University of New York concentrating on the theme, "Making Teaching More Effective." The purposes for the new conference structure were:

- ▶ To achieve that community of feeling among the decentralized units of State University so necessary for the spirit of a true university, i.e., a community of scholars, teachers, and students working together.
- ▶ To contribute to the general field of knowledge.
- ▶ To provide the locale and forum for reviewing in each college and in the colleges assembled the identification of particular and general problems, the dynamic discussion of an approach to these problems and considered recommendations for meeting these problems.
- ▶ To help our faculties and institutions to adjust to and accommodate the constantly changing needs of higher education in general and the two-year institution in particular.
- ▶ To enable us effectively to focus on those general problems essential to the continuing development of the two-year institutions of State University.
- ▶ To channel the new thinking involved in the planning of the two-year institutions so that it will have maximum beneficial effect on our own institutions and comparable institutions throughout the United States.
- ▶ To achieve a relatedness among the institutions, the classroom, instructors, and students and the conferences of State University both in structure and in content.
- ▶ To involve the classroom teacher in the classroom and to bring said instructor, his experience, his methods, and

his ideas of solving specific problems relating to the general theme problem to the attention of the classroom teachers throughout the whole State University.

- ▶ To identify more closely the problems at a classroom level and to make recommendations that will have meaning in actions rather than in words for the meeting of this problem at that level.
- ▶ To achieve that unity of concern without uniformity or conformity of action so necessary for the university to meet the changing needs of a changing society.
- ▶ To enjoy the advantages of twenty separate institutions working independently on a general problem and then sharing their independent findings with their sister groups.
- ▶ To accomplish careful pre-planning and preparation for the conference toward the achievement of maximum benefit in a minimum of time.
- ▶ To give an incentive for the scholarly expression of the various problems affecting the two-year institutions.
- ▶ To give recognition to scholarly expression by providing an oral and written volume for their thoughts and works.
- ▶ To leave a record of what they have done, what they are doing, and what needs to be done to meet new and old problems facing our institutions.
- ▶ To provide a conference committee representative in nature, empowered to act, democratically conceived, structured in a way to retain individuals with experience in the conferences but to introduce at the same time new representatives presumably with new ideas.
- ▶ To effect maximum faculty attendance and participation in the conferences at a minimum cost in time and travel.

In preparation for this year's program, both theme and structure were explained to each individual faculty on each campus by the Associate Executive Dean of the State University of New York. This pre-preparation for the program was planned to serve informationally and inspirationally in a face to face contact to assure the better acceptance of the program by the faculties. The faculties were provided with other tools to be used in working on the problem. A comprehensive bibliography entitled, "The Improvement of College Instruction" compiled by Leonard Cohan and Robert Gwydir, including books, dissertations, pamphlets, and periodicals, was distributed to all of the faculties. An article as a basis for beginning discussion entitled, "Making Teaching More Effective" by L. L. Jarvie, was given to each faculty member.

To help measure the instructors' effectiveness in teaching, to assist in the identification of the problems in the improvement of teaching, and to help determine what needed to be done, each of the faculties began to develop a series of evaluation instruments. These four instruments devised by the faculties included: (1) Self analysis evaluation. (2) Student evaluation. (3) Chairman or peer evaluation. (4) Alumni evaluation.

The emphasis in all of these is where it should be: on the individual teacher. To improve teaching, the change must start with and come from within the individual instructor. Change can be

effective only if there is a willingness to change. Such willingness comes from voluntary involvement in a learning situation which encourages planned change. Once this basic attitude and situation which encourages planned change has been accomplished, the identification and clarification of the problem and the knowledge of what can be done about the particular and general problems can be developed by expert advice and individual participation. Out of this can develop true creative teaching.

This described program was voluntary and its consideration was always in terms of individual development for professional rather than promotional reasons. Following the development and application of the first three evaluative instruments aforementioned—self analysis, student evaluation, and chairman or peer evaluation—it was suggested that profiles of effectiveness be drawn by the instructor. Out of these grew department discussions. Then local workshops were scheduled, structured, and programmed around the particular teaching problems of the individual institution and instructor. At these workshops, usually one day meetings, the *modus operandi* tended to be spirited discussion without formal papers. At some campuses, however, research papers of the problem were presented. Discussions and ideas then developed out of these papers. A comprehensive record of each of the conferences was made, reproduced, and distributed to all of the other institutions. In turn, these various colleges often reproduced and distributed them to each member of their faculty. Thus indirectly all of the faculties participated in each of the local conferences across the state.

Based on the local workshops, four regional conferences were then scheduled, structured, and programmed, grouping together the institutions on a regional basis for the purpose of examining the problem more intensively and of sharing the thinking of the several faculties involved. Regional committees, drawn from the statewide conference committee, took charge of these conferences. Resource people were brought in to deal with the problems which had grown out of the grass roots situation of the teacher in the classroom and the local conference workshops.

Like the campus workshops, the papers and record of these regional conferences were then compiled, reproduced, and distributed to all of the units. On Monday, June 15, this program was climaxed by the annual statewide conference

of the Community Colleges and Agricultural and Technical Institutes of State University at Broome Technical Community College in Binghamton. At this workshop conference, representatives from all of the two-year institutions convened for the purpose of giving a total look at the problem to which they had been giving their considered attention for over a year. Nationally known educators assisted the faculties in focusing their attention on these problems. Summaries of the research papers written during the year were given. An editorial committee then reviewed these materials, selected the best research paper for inclusion in the final report, plus all of the material and records from all of the conferences—local, regional, and statewide. Out of distillation of this will come a report giving the essence of this major faculty effort on the problem of teaching improvement.

The reasons and purposes for these individual and comprehensive statewide reports are:

- ▶ To have a permanent record of the experiences, problems, and recommendations for solution of problems of the two-year institutions.
- ▶ To contribute through a scholarly publication to the general field of higher education.
- ▶ To offer by this publication an incentive for thought and research on various problems facing the two-year institutions of State University and to provide for the publication of papers, panels, and panel discussions on various problems of the two-year institutions of State University of New York.
- ▶ To excite proper faculty interest from the classroom through to the statewide conference for the new conferences held throughout the year.
- ▶ To provide a permanent record for adequate follow-up for implementation of the recommendations made at the various conferences each year.

Precisely what all of this material will mean will have to await a final study of the mass of material developed by this program. A few tentative conclusions seem to be developing. Before one can teach effectively one must know his subject thoroughly and that knowledge must be kept constantly alive, nourished by continued study,

formal and informal, in the field. The mere knowledge of the subject, however, does not necessarily mean that the person with the knowledge can transmit it to others. It is necessary to know how to teach. In knowing how to teach, the instructor must also know the student. In approaching a consideration of techniques to improve the effectiveness of teaching, these generalizations should be kept in mind:

- ▶ The method of teaching must be appropriate to students, subject matter, and the teacher.
- ▶ Faculty members should understand the art of meeting the needs of the individual and of covering the amount of subject matter necessary for the achievement of the objectives of the course.
- ▶ The improvement of instruction depends on the attitude, determination, and philosophy of the teachers and administration to foster creative teaching.
- ▶ Objectives of all courses should be reassessed and restated in terms of the changing nature of the fields and in terms of student learning and behavior.
- ▶ Experimentation should be carried on constantly to explore new ways for the presentation of material and to understand better the old ways of instructing.
- ▶ Constant evaluation should be carried on by the instructor covering these areas: (1) preparation and background of the teacher, (2) the personality of the teacher, (3) the methods and techniques of the teacher, (4) the attitude and educational philosophy of the teacher.

To summarize in a brief paragraph: Occasionally new ideas do develop in the making of teaching more effective. Knowing what effective teaching is and what is required for effective teaching does not seem to be the problem. The problem is to get teachers to do something about it. Effective teaching is present only, it seems to me, when it results in proper and intense motivation for learning on the part of the students. This in turn relates directly to the instructor's love and mastery of his subject and to the enthusiasm which he generates in presenting the material to his students. He must really want the students to learn what he wants to teach. When he gets them involved with him in wanting to learn, the miracle of teaching and learning occurs. Perhaps the day of miracles is not over.

Love

"When I have attempted to join myself to others by services, it proved an intellectual trick, —and no more. They eat your service like apples, and leave you out. But love them, and they feel you, and delight in you all the time."

EMERSON
Gifts

Reinforcement and the Scholarly Response



Have we in our teaching been reinforcing the wrong responses? Are we seeking to develop scholarliness in our students? So asks a psychologist (A.B., M.A., Ph.D., Michigan) who has pursued studies in behavioral psychology and in college teaching. He briefly

describes the use of reinforcement planned for this fall in introductory psychology at University of Michigan and asks, "Have other analyses been so successful that the behavioristic learning theory is not worth trying as a way of producing more scholars?"

By **ROBERT L. ISAACSON**

AT THE turn of the century educational practices were profoundly affected by the behavioral scientists' studies of "transfer of training." As a result of the work of Thorndike, Woodworth, and James, the "doctrine of formal discipline" in education was abandoned, although remnants of this earlier view still linger in many places in the academic world. Today, we see another offspring of psychological research preparing to influence education, and it is not unlikely that the teaching machine will exert as much influence on education as did the transfer of training studies. While the teaching machine arose from the work of Professor B. F. Skinner of Harvard, its basic principle of operation, *reinforcement*, is not new. Our modern ideas of the effects of response reinforcement stem historically from Thorndike's "Law of Effect" and have been elaborated by modern behaviorists or neobehaviorists like Hull, Spence, and Skinner. The teaching machine was built because of the belief that fastest learning should occur when a large number of responses are made and reinforced with a minimal delay between the response and the reinforcement. Evidence that the basic reinforcement rule is effective in teaching machines is building up rapidly. Behavioral studies over the past fifty years have accumulated an enormous amount of testimony to the effect that reinforcement can and does alter response rates. For the moment let us accept the "principle of reinforce-

ment" as a basic rule of learning. Armed with this principle we can begin a different kind of attack on the problem of how to use college experience to produce more scholars.

Behaviorism is the main stream of American Psychology. It divides life into a series of stimulus-response episodes and demands that both be measurable. We can view it as an attempt to provide rules for the change in the probability that a given measurable response will follow given measurable stimuli as a function of training. Generally speaking, the rules are those previously used by the philosophers collectively called the British Associationists. In their hands the rules were used to connect "sense data" and "ideas," but behaviorists use them to connect stimuli and responses. Early in the development of rules, the principle of reinforcement was added to most of the theories of behavior. The effect of Darwinian thinking can be noted in the fact that primary reinforcement often is defined in terms of a reduction of a physiological need necessary to survival.

With the passing years and greater information, behaviorism has changed to a position where the stimuli and responses need not always be measurable or even observable. Hull dealt with "fractional anticipatory goal responses" and most modern theories have related concepts like "mediational" or "representational" responses which occur internally. These are essentially unobservable. The theories or rules of stimulus-response connection have been elaborated and changed, too. Even so, we find the principle of reinforcement, in one form or another, prominent in research and theory. I believe all modern behaviorists would endorse an empirical law of effect, that is to say, they would recognize the effectiveness of reinforcement, even though they may disagree among themselves as to what reinforcement is. This is enough for the present purpose.

The types of reinforcement that can be applied in the college situation are called "secondary" or "acquired reinforcers" in current terminology. In this group we can easily identify the grades assigned to the students' work, various collegiate awards and various indices of "good work" which are provided by the faculty. If desired, we could include the molecular stimuli provided by expressions of the instructor and the class. For complete

understanding of the role of reinforcement in college we must recognize the peer group's power in providing positive reinforcement to diverse behaviors. There can be little doubt that scholarly goals are not always advanced by the peer group's reinforcement of strictly social or even anti-intellectual behavior. At the moment little can be done directly to alter the pattern of reinforcements applied by a student's contemporaries, but I believe this is not a major item for concern. Our first step should be to analyze the ways in which we, as faculty members, reinforce behaviors emitted by our students.

In a behavioristic analysis of higher education we use a different language. We must confine ourselves to stimulus-response (S-R) descriptions of behavior. This may be objectionable to those who find behaviorism too austere, too bloodless, too superficial. However, the results of this exercise could be fruitful for gaining understanding of the situation.

What are the differences in response patterns between the scholar and the "student" who is only preparing himself with skills to be used in later life? These questions lead us to the more general question, what are the behaviors which we use to identify scholarship in the first place?

Often we tend to identify scholarship with the holding of certain attitudes or values. The behaviorist argues that these terms, attitudes and values, only have meaning in some larger theoretical system, and that they must be inferred from observable behaviors. In a sense he argues that we can, at least as a temporary expedient, do away with the intervening variables of attitude and value to gain a clear behavioral distinction between scholarly and nonscholarly behavior. If we could agree upon a set of scholarly responses we could advance in two ways: (1) reduce the ambiguity in definitions of "scholarly activities" when these are advanced in "common sense terms," and (2) establish training programs which would tend to increase the probability of these desired responses. Incidentally, psychologists know a good deal more about methods effective in altering responses than about methods effective in changing attitudes or values.

As a tentative first step, I propose scholarly behavior could be defined as the responses of searching for information, namely finding, reading, and studying the relevant books and journals when an individual is faced with a problem. In addition, the scholar is one who seeks informa-

tion for itself—the responses indicative of attempts to learn more about Man, his works, and the world when no "problem" is present. It is conceptually possible, at least, to identify and observe these freely emitted responses. It even would be possible to quantify the rate of emission of scholarly responses.

At the college level scholarly responses could be identified at libraries and dormitories, although they need not be restricted to these places. The nature and frequency of certain kinds of verbal responses could be used as other indices of scholarly activity. Again, it is conceptually possible to catalog the topics of discussion in undergraduate circles. Frequent occurrences of social gossip would indicate less scholarliness than frequent occurrences of academic issues and problems.

Accepting these tentative descriptions of scholarly responses we can ask ourselves to what extent do we tend to reinforce these responses?

It seems apparent to me that our traditional techniques in mass education, especially in lower level courses, do not act to reinforce the collection of desired scholarly responses. Dependence upon texts providing "complete coverage" with their associated and equally complete work books provides little need for a student to "dig into" an academic area. Even where extra work is suggested or assigned the greatest influence upon the students' grade still rests upon the recognition of the correct alternative in a multiple choice exam. Thus, the production of scholarly responses is minimally reinforced, if reinforced at all, in our large courses.

The lectures that go along with the standard courses do not prompt scholarly responses, either. The responses involved in attending lectures, taking notes, and reviewing the notes before the examination are hardly those we have identified as the ones which we hope will be inculcated by the college experience. If we ask why college does not seem to produce scholars to the extent we desire, the behaviorist must reply that we have been using our reinforcements poorly. In short, we have been reinforcing the wrong responses. Another implication of this view would be that there may not be anything wrong with the use of grades; rather our mistake has been in the ways we have assigned them. According to modern learning theory and data, we should be able to increase the rate of scholarly responses simply by arranging for their occurrence and reinforcing them. The awarding of grades should

be to reinforce the responses requisite to seeking and attaining information, not the recognition of the "correct alternative response."

In the fall of 1961 we are attempting to implement a change in the patterns of reinforcement in our introductory psychology courses at The University of Michigan. Several techniques will be used, but my favorite is one in which students "qualify" to take their examinations by passing several "Preliminary" multiple choice, objective tests. *The passing of the preliminary examinations does not count anything toward their grade in the course.* The examination proper is one designed for each student on the basis of previously submitted reports of what he has read on topics of special interest that he has selected. The instructors must work with the students to keep abreast of the students' work progress and to guide them away from worthless or out of date materials. Through the use of critical "reading logs" and the subdivision of discussion sections into smaller groups each working on a related problem, we hope each instructor will be able to work with sixty students. If he can, the plan will be economically feasible for the department. In this program, the students' selection, search, reading, and study will be the only instrumental behaviors reinforced by grades. To be sure, the student must pass a traditional objective examination, but we hope that by not placing any emphasis on superficial grasp of the material toward his grade the student will not come to value this kind of performance.

Of course the examination which is important in the determination of the student's grade must be an essay or written report. The scholarly responses must come to fruition in written communication at least between student and teacher. The amount of writing required of students will increase significantly and will be necessary to goal attainment (grade in course). Just as with the set of scholarly responses, clarity and precision in writing will be reinforced. In fact, it may well be that communication skills should be defined as part of the set of responses indicative of scholarship.

To this point our discussion has centered about the use of reinforcement as a means to con-

trol the rate of certain responses arbitrarily designated as scholarly. The aim of higher education is more than this. We want these selected responses to be produced in extramural situations and postgraduation times. Stating this in a behavioristic way, our goal is to make scholarly responses, themselves, secondarily reinforcing.

The curious part is that by making the scholarly response necessary for reinforcement we should at the same time be making the scholarly responses secondary reinforcers. There is a controversy among learning theorists today as to whether or not stimuli need be related in some instrumental way to reinforcement. The alternative view holds that stimuli need be only closely associated with more primary reinforcements. In learning theories, stimuli are those things which are reinforcing and in our case the stimuli would be those arising from scholarly responses. This "feedback" should become conditioned as a secondary reinforcer to whichever position in the controversy wins out, for it will be instrumental to goal attainment and always associated with it.

From learning theory generally, then, we are led to believe that our current practices in large-course instruction are not well suited for the elicitation of scholarly responses or for changing the attractiveness of scholarship. From a behavioristic point of view we should carefully pick out those responses we want and then proceed to reinforce them by trying to arrange situations in which those responses are the only ones closely related to the goals of the situation. By doing this we would predict that (a) these responses should occur more often and (b) they should come to be secondary reinforcers themselves. Relatively simple changes in the condition of reinforcement should produce more scholars. The simplicity of the model suggests superficiality, but I would argue that the very simplicity of the view is its advantage. Class size, faculty skills, grading policies and systems, have only indirect effects, and even these through related effects on the reinforcement situation. Is it too simple a view or is it worthwhile trying? Have other analyses been so successful that the behavioristic learning theory is not worth trying as a way of producing more scholars?

Creative Problem Solving in Teacher Education



The cave dwellers, the early Egyptians, the boys of Sparta all had problems and solved them to survive. The invention of the wheel, the bow, the gasoline engine, the quantum theory, and the Datatron calculator are examples of man's brilliant successes in problem solving. "Before we can teach future citizens to be creative in their problem solving, we must begin with those who will teach them," says an associate professor (B.S., M.Ed., Ph.D., Wayne State) who has taught in grade school four years and in college nine years, is an ordained minister, is a life member of Psi Chi, honor fraternity in psychology, has done research and published articles in both religious and educational journals. He reports details of his use of problem solving as a way of learning.

By WILLIAM J. GNAGEY

BEFORE we can teach future citizens to be creative in their problem solving, we must begin with those who will teach them. If, through creative teaching at the college level, we are able to help student teachers become more creative in their own problem solving, our effect will be greatly pyramided as they go out and influence roomfuls of children year after year. This paper presents *one way* that creative problem solving might be taught at the college level.

Creative problem solving will be referred to as CPS. As an operational definition, let us say that a person is solving problems creatively to the extent that his solutions are selected and carried out on the basis of the most pertinent material available, after having considered the most possible solutions, and that the choice of the solution acted upon is based on an unbiased appraisal of its expected optimal effect.

Perhaps the next logical question to ask after having read the definition above is, "What can a teacher do in a classroom to help a student change his behavior in the direction of CPS?" One way to answer the question is to look briefly at some of the factors which hinder CPS as defined, and then try to teach so as to eliminate these disturbing forces.

Beier found that "Individuals in a state of induced anxiety show greater rigidity and disorganization of perceptual fields as measured by the tests used in the study." (1, p. 273) In other words, people who are anxious seem less able to see data and relationships that are unfamiliar to them, and they tend to get a distorted picture of the sensory material that they do receive.

Luchins found that repeating problem solving procedures in a drill fashion produced an Einstellung or overlearning effect that prevented a large number of his experimental subjects from solving problems creatively. (4, pp. 14-15) After so much meaningless drill, these people seemed blind to new data which offered much more direct and efficient solutions to the problems. The overlearning seemed to limit them to the same pedantic methods of solution they had been practicing.

Rokeach reported that time was an important factor in problem solving. He found that as the time for consideration of a problem was decreased, rigidity in problem solving increased. (5, pp. 206-216) His subjects were much more adept at getting correct answers and in using data in a creative way when the perception time was increased.

Tolman concluded that narrow cognitive structures are caused, among other things, by "... an inadequate array of environmentally presented cues." (6, p. 206) In other words, the more vaguely defined are the cues at a point of choice the greater the percentage of errors which occur. Data that are hazy or insufficient data about a given problem lead to mistakes in the problem solving process.

Although certainly not separate from the forces mentioned above, Frenkle-Brunswik points out that authoritarian type training seems to cause children to react in a rigid, noncreative manner. She concludes, "Only a frightened and frustrated child will tend to gain safety and security by oversimplified, black and white schematizations and categorizations on the basis of crude, external characteristics." (2, p. 306) Prejudice is represented here as decision making on the basis of only the superficial data. The author concurs with Beier when she points out the limiting effects that fear and frustration produce on normal problem solvers.

A related factor is revealed by Goldstein when he declared, "Rigidity occurs when an organism

is unable to come to terms with its environment in an 'adequate' way. It is a means of protection against catastrophic conditions." "Normal individuals may also exhibit rigidity under certain conditions, namely in performances beyond their capacities." (3, p. 225) If people are presented with tasks which are (or which they think are) beyond their abilities, then they seem to lose their creativity and draw back into the sanctuary of their habits.

In setting up objectives, in choosing learning experiences, and in deciding what the role of the teacher should be, the following principles seem important:

- ▶ Anxiety producing situations should be kept to a minimum.
- ▶ Drill on prescribed problem solving methods should be avoided.
- ▶ Plenty of time should be allowed for the perception and solution of problems.
- ▶ A great deal of clearly defined data should be available.
- ▶ Punitive, authoritarian type classroom control should not be employed.
- ▶ Students should not be forced into problem-solving situations which are beyond their capacities.

This list is largely a negative one. This is true because we know a lot more facts about what limits creativity than we do about what encourages it.

GETTING ACQUAINTED

The first two class sessions were taken up with getting to know one another.

We all introduced ourselves, made statements about our families, the age children we were now teaching, and any special problems which we hoped would be solved in this class. We made a conscious attempt to remember first and last names, and thereafter used these in the discussion periods. A list of names (with some of the above data) was duplicated and handed out for constant reference.

My role as teacher was an integrative and supporting one. I took my turn at trying to name all the people in the class, and boldly missed a number. This seemed to encourage those who were having trouble remembering names to try harder since there was less chance of losing face if some names were missed. When two students were found to come from the same area of the city or to teach in the same building, I would acknowledge the fact and try to emphasize all possibilities that the members in the class might have to one another. If a person seemed a bit apologetic about his name, I would make supportive statements like, "You're lucky you don't have a name like mine" or when it was appropriate, "I had a friend once whose name was _____, so if I give you high grades, you'll know why."

One purpose of the "Getting Acquainted" period was quite crucial. Since we believe CPS increases with the amount of accurate data available, this sharing helped us to know the backgrounds from which our classmates spoke. We learned quickly some of their unique ways of

expressing themselves. This was an aid in understanding what they meant when they spoke, thus contributing measurably to the clarity of the data they presented.

Another purpose was to build up a feeling of group cohesiveness and acceptance, together with a relaxed, anxiety free climate. We have earlier stated the limiting effects of anxiety on CPS.

The third purpose of the getting acquainted step was to begin to gather data concerning the problems that the students were thinking about. This interstimulation not only encouraged the students to state the problems they already had, but by listening to others many seemed to think of similar problems that they might not have otherwise stated.

A final purpose (although one could rationalize many more) of this first stage of the class was one of diagnosis. By listening to the students talk, I was able to get a general idea of "where they were" in their understanding and "what they brought with them" from their previous experiences.

OVERVIEW OF THE FIELD

About the first meeting of the second week, I took about 15 minutes to overview the field of Educational Psychology. I mentioned briefly the large areas generally considered part of the course, and showed by a few illustrations how these pertained to the classroom. We then took some time to discuss these areas for clarification, and added some that the group felt had been left out. All this was done with the understanding that we need not cover all the areas, and that the group would have a chance to set up the chronology for the topics, taking up first those topics which seemed to fulfill their present needs and leaving others till later.

My role during this stage was to assure the class that, while I knew the field well, their needs would form the basis for our work. I attempted to guide the addition of topics with questions aimed at bringing out their appropriateness to Educational Psychology, their possible solution in other courses and their interest to the majority of the group.

SETTING UP A PRIORITY SCHEDULE

On a duplicated form the class rated the topics upon which we had agreed. A score for each topic was computed after assigning numbers to the rating columns. In this way we set up a tentative priority sequence for the term. We still had the understanding that we need not cover all the topics, and there would be no time limits on a given topic.

The purpose of the overview and subsequent revision and selections of topics was to give the students practice in selecting and sifting hypotheses as possible solutions to their problems. My overview of the course areas was to insure a wide latitude choice and varied sources of data. Since

we gave ample opportunity for additions, students were encouraged to think creatively about their problems, and strengthen their realization that there were no rigid boundaries beyond which they could not go.

THE CONTRACT PLAN

As in almost any group, it soon became obvious that many people (although a minority) were interested in pursuing problems of a different nature and chronology than the group plan indicated. I did not want the group plan to become a restraining force for those who wanted to launch out into other fields. At the same time, I wanted the course to serve the greatest number of students. It was at this point that I introduced a modified contract plan for individual study. On a mimeographed form students were asked to plan their own outside learning activities. We took a great deal of time to list together a great variety of activities which might bring about solutions to a student's problem.

My role at this stage was to encourage each student to assign himself activities that looked promising. I made a strong point that there need be no uniformity of choice. I threw in some ideas of my own which I thought were unconventional enough to show that I really meant what I said. I suggested that if they wanted my help it would be a good idea to make their projects shorter and begin checking with me early in the term for guidance. I offered my services in helping procure material that students could not get themselves.

One purpose of the contract plan was to let the student bite off what he thought he could chew. In this way I would not be forcing him into situations where he had to solve problems that were beyond his capacities. The contract plan also gave practice and guidance in purposeful planning. My comments about the material that they handed to me for evaluation were of the sort which pointed out needs for clarification, suggested sources of material, and asked questions about purpose and usefulness. I had a duplicate of each student's plan and kept a record of suggestions I had made to him. A circulating file of projects was set up so that anyone could read the material that was coming in from the other students. As new projects came in, a list was distributed to the class. Some expressed a desire to make oral presentations before the class. In this way, the class were able to help guide the student by their questions.

SETTING UP OBJECTIVES

Upon first glance, it may seem that we have skipped one of the traditional practices in lesson

planning, the objectives. While one class did set up a formal statement of this sort as a part of a later unit, we have but to review the definition of objectives to see that they are part and parcel of the class procedure as it stands.

Tyler states, "Since the real purpose of education is not to have the instructor perform certain activities, but to bring about significant changes in the students' patterns of behavior, it becomes important to recognize that any statement of objectives . . . should be a statement of changes to take place in that student." (7, p. 28)

Since our whole approach was a problem-centered one, the student was encouraged to say to himself, "What do I want to be able to do that I can't now?" One group's choice of "Classroom Management" as a topic for discussion was the result of a personal objective that they set. This objective arose from a problem. If forced to state it in "Tylerian" fashion, one might phrase it: ability to keep my fourth grade class orderly. This kind of process went on with the group planning and on the individual's contract planning as well.

USE OF CLASS PERIODS

In addition to films and other oral presentations by the class members, the group decided that class periods could fruitfully be used for discussions of problems they had encountered in their student teaching assignments. Although we tried to discuss these problems in terms of the general area at hand, we often crossed area boundaries. This not only left students free to think over a wide variety of data about the problem, but it served to show the interrelatedness of the areas in educational psychology and the necessity for the consideration of many interdependent hypotheses of their problem solving.

My role in this part of the class experience was one of discussion leader, integrator and contributor as a member of the group. In addition, I asked many questions which pointed out gaps in data, raised issues not perceived, and encouraged original solutions to problems raised. When there were no problems forthcoming, I was ready with one or two for discussion. From time to time I would ask the class if they felt ready to move on to the next topic, and whether they still felt that the next topic chosen was an important one.

One function of the class period was to make data available from our experience and from reports and files. Another function was to make sure that any generalizations expressed were firmly based on actual experience. A third purpose was one of anxiety relief. Students "talked out"

their anxieties and seemed to feel relieved that other people were going through some of the same dilemmas as they. A final function was to evaluate the success of many of our class activities in terms of how to improve our learning situation and where to go next.

EVALUATION PROCEDURES

In addition to our continuous verbal evaluation during the class, and my comments on the contract projects that were handed in, the class decided that they would like to take some paper and pencil tests, with the understanding that when they were checked and scored, no grade would be attached, but only a report of the score spread in the class, and a frequency tally of the number of times each question was missed. They understood that since a grade had to be assigned, some evidence was needed. They further understood that their final examination would be the task of sitting down with a folder of their projects, test scores, etc., and stating the grade they thought they deserved in terms of the purposes they set for the course and the evidence available.

One of the tests was made from classroom incidents that they had gathered. They were asked to write down how they would have handled the incident and why. Another exam was an objective test about some of the generalizations we had made in class.

Still another evaluation device was a group rating of others' contributions to the class discussions in terms of the understanding that it evidenced. It was agreed that if a student didn't enter into the discussions we had no evidence for evaluation, but that if he did, it might be helpful for him to know the impression he conveyed to the class. These evaluation sheets were combined and each person was handed back the class' rating of his own contribution. This was added to his folder as another piece of evidence upon which he was to rate himself.

My role in the evaluation was to offer my services as a testmaker, arrange for secretarial help to score the objective questions, score the essay type questions, and encourage discussion of the results in terms of clarifying concepts that the class in general had trouble with, criticizing questions that seemed ambiguous, and pointing out the implications of this experience for the student's own classroom teaching. In some classes a group of students would volunteer to construct, score, and lead a discussion on an evaluation instrument.

The function of the evaluation procedure was manifold. One outcome was to encourage self-evaluation in terms of "Have I solved the problem adequately?" In order to teach for CPS, students

need to practice continual self-evaluation in terms of their own goals. Direct experience with the strengths and weaknesses of measuring devices was additional data upon which to base decisions about their own evaluation techniques in their teaching. Absence of anxiety about being able to guess at the instructor's eccentricities in giving grades seemed to free the students to look squarely at what they had accomplished according to their own standards.

MY OWN EVALUATION

It is obvious from my discussion that even though I encouraged my students to form their own objectives, I have had many of *my own* underlying this whole experience. Of the many that I might list, this paper will take up only these: (1) feeling of freedom to explore their own problem areas, (2) ability to recognize more sources of data for the solution of classroom problems, (3) habit of looking for a variety of solutions before making a choice, (4) ability to select a solution on the basis of its optimal effect rather than by its conventionality.

How can I tell whether students have changed their behavior patterns in these areas of life? I believe that some of these changes are evidenced by the fact that: (1) their answers to problems confronted in class and on paper-pencil tests presented increasingly unique solutions using more of the data available; (2) the activities that were handed in or presented before the class were much more varied than they were at the beginning of the class; (3) students began to question our own class procedures in terms of outcomes, data, new approaches, etc.; (4) students felt free to change their own contracts as the need arose; (5) they began to question and probe other students' statements and the teacher's too; (6) the final examination gave evidence of a degree of CPS as they used the data in their own way to evaluate themselves.

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Interesting College Students in Research



Because undergraduate teaching is not permeated, as it should be, with the spirit of inquiry, stimulation of students in research needs increased attention. The author (Ph.B., M.S., Ph.D., North Dakota), has had fourteen years experience in college and university teaching on three campuses, including experience in psychological and counseling centers. He gives us a description of work with 183 undergraduates to develop appreciation of research and its techniques.

By LEROY C. OLSEN

STIMULATING college student's interests in the area of research has long been a problem of college teachers. If students are to be interested in this area then opportunities must be provided for them to become acquainted with research. Any approach to this problem demands sufficient attention, organization, and evaluation so that it becomes a valuable learning experience rather than just another assignment.

There are a number of reasons for interesting college students in research and these have been quoted many times in other sources. Some of the author's reasons for using this technique were: to develop an appreciation of research and research techniques; to increase knowledge and information, and to promote a better understanding of the values and limitations of research.

The technique described below has been used by the author for several semesters in a course in Educational Psychology at Washington State University. The 183 students involved in this description of the technique were from the author's classes during the second semester of 1958-59 and the first semester of 1959-60. The classes were not only college sophomores and a few juniors. The technique was included as part of the assigned laboratory work.

DESCRIPTION OF THE TECHNIQUE

The following instructions were given to the students on mimeographed sheets:

You (students) will select a topic from your text and turn it in to the instructor; this topic will then be approved or disapproved as an adequate topic.

Then on the basis of your topic you will summarize 20 experimental studies related to your topic. These summaries must include research from the last three years of any journal or journals. Earlier journals may be used if permission is obtained from the instructor.

These summaries shall be typed on 5x8 cards, not more than one card for each summary. They must be brief, but should include main points of the study.

The following experimental outline should be followed:

1. Problem or purpose
2. Method
3. Results
4. Discussion
5. Conclusion or Summary

Journals to be used should be taken from the following areas:

Psychology
Education
Guidance
Measurement

Other journals may be acceptable but must be cleared with the instructor.

The summaries will be due not later than
(date)

During the time the instructions were given to the students they also received a mimeographed copy of an experiment in summary form. Approval of the topics was necessary because some of the students selected topics which had very little or no information available, topics that were too general, or topics not appropriate to the course. The entire process was discussed in class so that each student understood the assignment.

These summaries when completed by the students were turned in to the instructor and were then evaluated on four points. These points were: relatedness to topic, adequacy of summary, form and quality of writing. Four points were allowed for each summary and the total points obtained were included in the student's grade. Credit should be given for the summaries as considerable work is involved in the assignment. Other methods could be used in evaluation of the summaries.

As can be noted from Table 1, students selected a wide range of topics. A number of the topics have been grouped under a single heading to facilitate setting up the table. For example, intellectual development included such topics as the development of mental abilities, measuring intelligence at various stages of development, and others related to intellectual development.

Student comments on the technique were obtained at the end of each semester. The opinions expressed by the students were favorable, and

Table I. TOPICS SELECTED BY STUDENTS FOR SUMMARIES FROM THE AREA OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Topics	Second semester	First semester
Intellectual development	6	5
Personality development	5	7
Speech and language	9	7
Attitudes and interests	6	5
Learning	10	5
Gifted child	12	13
Character and moral development	3	2
Emotional development	11	10
Exceptional child	2	5
Physical development	7	3
Numerical ability	1
Retarded children	5	1
Reading	1	9
Artistic ability	2	1
Delinquency	2	5
Leadership	1
Handedness	1
Social development	7	3
Motivation	2	5
Perception	2	1
Creativity	1	1
Totals	96	87

appeared to satisfy the reasons stated earlier for using the technique. Such comments as "allows one to pursue an area of special interest," "one of the most valuable aspects of the course," "provides a much better understanding of the values and limitations of research" were prevalent in the opinions expressed by the students.

This technique could be varied in a number of different ways. An addition that the author planned for the next semester was to allow the students to design an experimental study in the area of their interest after their summaries are completed.

The author believes that through techniques of this nature it is possible to interest students in research and to acquaint them with the knowledge, values, limitations, and methods of research. However, any approach to this problem must be carefully organized and evaluated.

When the President Played Truant

"At one of the Faculty meetings in the first years of her presidency, when some grave academic questions were being discussed without much prospect of being brought to a conclusion, Miss Freeman was called to the door and found there the housekeeper of Dana Hall, who had insisted on seeing Miss Freeman. She had a carriage waiting to take her to Dana Hall to see the dress rehearsal of a French comedy which was soon to be given. The humor of the situation struck Miss Freeman. Returning to the room, she announced to the assembled professors that she had been called away on pressing business for an hour, and requested one of them to take the chair. Gleefully she drove to Dana Hall, laughed steadily for half an hour, and came back to the tired Faculty, blithe and breezy, to swing the discussion on to a prompt conclusion."

GEORGE HERBERT PALMER
The Life of Alice Freeman Palmer
Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin Company
1908. Page 157.

Graduate Work in Literary Criticism



Criticism can be a constructive factor in the advancement of the arts, it can be misguided and destructive, it can be "precious rubbish." The author (B.A., M.A., Colorado; Ph.D., Denver), a member of a university English faculty, believes that every graduate student in English should have some formal critical training. He has contributed to journals including articles on gifted and exceptional students.

student in English should have some formal critical training. He has contributed to journals including articles on gifted and exceptional students.

By **WALTER J. De MORDAUNT**

LITERARY criticism is today a hotbed of polemics and whatever one says about it may be fair game for sharpshooters. However, in these days of the new critics, of explication, of facing the literary issues, perhaps, more squarely, I find increasing agreement with my belief that every graduate student in English should have some formal critical training.

Such training can give him purpose where there was confusion, perspective where there was lack of vision. It can provide trustworthy bases for real appreciation. I have found that it can even give the student a fuller life, to be lived on ground that does not shift out from under him. Especially if he teaches English after leaving college, a sane and considered approach to his subject through one of the disciplines of literary criticism is useful and even necessary. With a clear critical attitude, his teaching will assume more system and coherence, more conviction: even perhaps, a bit of that contagious, controlled enthusiasm—the element, as Kenneth Burke would put it, "without which not."

Of course I am not saying that all these advantages automatically follow upon concluding a couple of semesters' work in criticism. But if the student gets the flavor of so much earnest investigation and appreciation of literary value as is found in nearly every critic from the disillusioned but ecstatic Plato through the extreme individualities of such diverse characters as Jonson, the von Schlegels, Edward Young, and on to the very exciting critics of the 30's and 40's of our own century—and if the critics are, for a time at least,

"read by day and thought about by night," the student should, I think, have made literature as an art (rather than as a tangled mass of information) accessible to himself.

There is no doubt that if one brings a chaotic mind to his subject, the subject itself may appear chaotic. Even more than literature, criticism can seem to be a complete maelstrom of contraries and outright contradictions, since it deals in abstractions and often unverifiable opinion. For this reason, a course in literary criticism can degenerate into disconnected ideas with no more coherence than was found in the old fashioned course in literature.

It is precisely the anti-aesthetic approach of such literature courses with their more or less unconscionable evasion of literary matters (in favor of sociological, psychological, biographical, historical, or semasiological studies) that many important contemporary literary critics inveigh against. To read these critics on literary scholarship is to realize that there is something seriously wrong with many English department graduate staffs, who have been teaching their subject indiscriminately, as if it were not literature at all, and as if the student had no right to ask why he must learn the specific facts he does. To read Allen Tate on positivism, Richard Blackmur on tendentious criticism, Wimsatt and Beardsley on the intentional and affective fallacies, Kenneth Burke on scientific criticism, or Yvor Winters' wonderful "The Significance of the Bridge by Hart Crane, or What Are We to Think of Professor X?" is to realize that what is wrong in these graduate staffs is lack of critical judgment about the focal points of their students' attention.

Certainly it is true that many undergraduates believe that it is only necessary to be very exact about literary facts in order to succeed in this field. The courses they take in literature—testing on dates, names, titles, etc.—originate and reinforce this belief. On the other hand, literary training which stresses only esthetic appreciation can be even more damaging, since its logical extreme is to assert that the whole vast corpus of literary scholarship is irrelevant to the topic at hand. If pure scholarship is esthetically barbaric, this over-stress on explication without factual backing is worse. "Friends" of the new criticism with these tendencies should give a heartfelt reading to

Richard Blackmur's *Double Agent* (where the Double Agent is both critic and scholar, "a master layman of all modes of the mind"), Lionel Trilling's "The Sense of the Past," and of course T. S. Eliot's "Tradition and the Individual Talent."

In the early forties, books like Brooks and Warrens' *Understanding Poetry* began a trend toward a more distinct concern, in college literature classes, with literary meaning and value. This trend is admirably continued today in, for example, John Ciardi's *How Does a Poem Mean?* and Laurence Perrine's *Sound and Sense*. Supposing the graduate student of 1961 to have been navigated by a sensible English department between the Scylla of total scholastic ignorance and the Charybdis of autocratic pedantry, one would then have a crop of ideal raw recruits for graduate study in literary criticism. These people would be cognizant of the values of both scholarship and explication. When they have finished the course, they would realize that these are not inimical disciplines, but two aspects of a cooperative enterprise, like engineering (scholarship) and architecture (criticism).

The graduate students we do get are still sickly enough. The illness appears for example in their undeviating belief that every class report must begin with a recital of dates of birth and death, biographical sketch, statement of political and economic conditions, etc. Symptoms also appear in the graduate students' slavish piety toward their "betters," as a student of mine put it. What folly it would be to belittle Shelley, that giant of the "Defense." Value judgments come first in these minds if they come at all. Conversely, the student with "distastes" ("Goethe is such a sickly romantic") is often really incurable, so little does he know of scholarly and critical objectivity.

What I am saying here is that the graduate course in literary criticism must practice its own doctrines if it is not to be another "Lives of the Authors" miscellany, if it is not to ignore the really important and somewhat revolutionary attitudes of contemporary criticism. The course should be the glass through which we focus our students' reading, and this reading must be as

voluminous in both literature and criticism itself as possible.

As an aid in giving the critical reading more force, more coherence, and more usefulness in students' later literary work, I have found that the course should have some point of constant reference. I have used Kenneth Burke for this purpose—that is, as a framework. Burke's *Grammar of Motives* is to me a paradigm (using philosophies instead of criticisms) of a way in which each separate critic studied in the course can maintain his own integrity and yet be seen as an integral part in a larger body of thought. Burke is especially excellent for this purpose both because he is an important literary critic himself and because he counts it a primary heresy to over-simplify, to reduce . . . But one could use many other modern critics instead: for example, T. E. Hulme, with his concepts of Romanticism and Classicism.

It is true that many of the older critical essays are themselves literature and could be studied as such. This is only one reason for the necessity of a course framework: to remind the students that they are studying not Pope as writer, but Pope as critic. When they really begin to do this, some of the false ad hominem pieties may dissolve into a genuine interest in the very exciting and very practical suggestions Pope has specifically for them as future teachers of literature, future authors, and (God bless them) future critics. To see the minds of a group of graduate students—people who, as one of them put it to me, "are playing for keeps"—freed in this way from the superimposed obeisances toward dusty symbols, and musty names and dates, is a very rewarding experience indeed.

Thus, the criticism instructor should emphasize that criticism, studied as timeless literature, can lose its role as a peculiarly contemporary agency. Blackmur, writing on "The Enabling Act of Criticism" says this best, perhaps, but the point I would borrow from him and others (preeminent among them, I believe is Matthew Arnold in "The Function of Criticism at the Present Time") is simply that the critic is doing his best job of work when he sets the cultural stage, today, for literary understanding and production.

Educational Theory from Parnassus



This article is about a widely read book, its merits and faults. The writer of the article (B.A., Columbia; M.A., Ph.D., New York University) has taught at five universities in this country and at the Universidad de Salamanca, and has written several books, the latest being *"Daniel Coit Gilman and the Protean Ph.D."* He says that "Professor Highet is best when he forgets about 'the art of teaching' and writes pure literary history." The book "remains the obiter dicta of a highly cultivated, gentle man."

By FRANCESCO CORDASCO

PROFESSOR Gilbert Highet's *The Art of Teaching* was first published in 1950 and enjoyed a moderate success; in its paperback edition it has known a phenomenal sale running through seven printings from 1954 to 1960. Professor Highet is that strange kind of classicist who has become literary humanist and purveyor of classical culture. The Anthon Professorship of Latin Language and Literature which Professor Highet perpetuates at Columbia University is an anomalous homage for the kind of classical studies which are really dead (or dying) in America and whose *Ars Moriendi* was written a long time ago by the students of the rising modern languages. Professor Highet, in a sense, embalmed the corpse when he wrote his *Classical Tradition* (1949). His *Art of Teaching* is the kind of urbane performance we would expect of an individual steeped in the gerund grinding of a bygone age, and articulated within the disciplines of a Germanic scholarship whose specialization was the mark of the defunct litterae humaniores. All this is not to register a lack of sympathy. It is merely to help define the vantage point from which Dr. Highet speaks on education, and to attempt the definition of what it is that Highet regards as education. What is there in *The Art of Teaching* of value to the American public school teacher?

First as to what education is, Dr. Highet attempts no definition. He observes, "One word of caution. This book does not deal with the subjects taught. It does not try to discuss whether

science, or religion, or art, or foreign languages should be taught, or what the relation between the various subjects ought to be. It is concerned only with the *methods* of teaching." (Vintage Books ed., 1957, p. 6) So much for that. The *methods* of teaching which Dr. Highet examines comprehend such divisions as "The Teacher," "The Teacher's Methods," "Great Teachers and Their Pupils," and lastly, "Teaching in Everyday Life." It at once becomes clear, then, that this is a most generalized account, whose methodology is historical, biographical, literary and, in a sense, aphoristic. It is not a treatise. It has nothing to do with the professional problems of the American teacher, and if profit is to be garnered from its pages, such profit would be the emulation of wit, urbanity, and genteel learning that Professor Highet possesses.

At times, Professor Highet is guilty of the worst platitudes, as in the enumeration of the abilities (attributes?) of a good teacher. For Professor Highet, these are three:

Memory, then, and will power are two of the qualities that make a good teacher. The third is kindness. It is very difficult to teach anything without kindness. It can be done of course by the exercise of strong compulsion—as lion tamers teach their beastly pupils—but there are not many types of pupil on which such compulsion can be exercised. . . . Learning anything worth while is difficult. Some people find it painful. Everyone finds it tiring. Few things will diminish the difficulty, the pain, and the fatigue like the kindness of a good teacher. (ed. cit., pp. 63-64)

There is nothing here with which anyone could argue. But the question is, *What is here?* Nothing really more substantial than the most obvious truths. Dr. Highet has said nothing beautifully. Of course, he is most vulnerable when he attempts (in obvious disregard or rejection) so complicated a matter as "learning." He has neither the training nor the perspective to do this adequately. We know too much today about the learning process to be taken in by word sophistry. The *Education Index* might easily dissuade any but the most resolute from facile generalization about "learning" if only in its enumeration of studies which would need be read and understood before pronouncement. And the article "Learning" in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (3d. ed., 1960) would perforce scotch Professor Highet's superficiality. *The Art of Teaching*, obviously, is not a professional book. It will help

solve no problems. It comes to grips with no problems. It remains only the obiter dicta of a highly cultivated, gentle man who is writing in a gaslit study.

Professor Highet is best when he forgets about "the art of teaching" and writes pure literary history, criticism, or biography, and it is herein that the merit of his book lies. Actually, much of the erudite material is taken from his book *The Classical Tradition* from which most of the scholarly panoply has been removed or watered down. Here, in his own forte, few would risk argument with Dr. Highet. For example, in his discussion of Renaissance education (pp. 189-195) he mentions in the course of his pages no less than three dozen titles, names, motifs for which his commentary establishes easy familiarity. This is scholarship in the grand manner. It is only when Professor Highet attempts the correlation of the adduced facts to "teaching" that we get some strange judgments. In his most sympathetic discussion of Renaissance education, he observes: "The subjects taught in the Renaissance do not concern us in this study. The methods of teaching do. Their success is proved not only by the men and the women they produced but by the enthusiasm with which most of their pupils speak of them." (p. 191) And with this bon mot he goes on to applaud the early age at which children were apprenticed to learning. His *classical* bias is obvious because his yardstick is Greek and/or Latin. "Shakespeare, who got an average small-town education, began Latin about the age of seven. Milton . . . was put into Latin by his father at seven and into Greek at nine." (pp. 191-92) And so on. Allowing the factual accuracy of all of this, it must still be held deplorable. The educational historian would most certainly note that this was poor education, if education at all and at most succeeding in traumatising those few (alas! how many children received nothing) who were exposed to it. As for its products, beyond a

Shakespeare, a Milton, a Montaigne, it also produced Spanish inquisitors, Cromwell, Charles II, and a host of other notables who are historically prized.

Against this very force of making children miniature adults the battles of Pestalozzi, Froebel, and other reformers were waged. If Professor Highet is ignorant of educational literature and history, he is most certainly not ignorant of education in literature and this should have disciplined some of his judgments. This early Renaissance precocity which he nostalgically commemorates persisted through the 18th and 19th centuries—that is, an education which was based on the theory that children should early begin mastering the encyclopedism of their elders. Professor Highet is surely familiar with the literature in which this type of learning is unsympathetically embalmed. He knows *Arnold of Rugby*, John Stuart Mill's sensitive *Autobiography*, Dickens' novels (remember Creakle's school in *David Copperfield*), and a host of other materials which attempted to dissipate the moribund values of a dead age. In a sense, the battle is being waged in our own time. Admiral Rickover (in what connections did he become an expert on American education?), Robert Maynard Hutchins, Stringfellow Barr, and Arthur Bestor have recently donned the armour of the ancients and have begun assaulting the hard earned ramparts of American education. Always people ask of any teacher what Emerson demanded: "Give me insight into today." If this is inoffensively lacking in Professor Highet, it is painfully absent in the works of these cultural bedfellows. For the teacher who needs reassurance that American education is a positive, dynamic, evolving social force, the anodyne to Highet and Company is a reading of Adolphe Meyer's recently published *An Educational History of the American People*. If anything, Professor Meyer has the record straight and his facts in proper historical perspective.

Turns at the Top

"The rotation which whirls every leaf and pebble to the meridian, reaches to every gift of man, and we all take turns at the top."

EMERSON
Nominalist and Realist

Benedict on Authority



The word "authority" is a hot one but inescapable. We have to have a theory about it and we "practice" it in our disciplines and our teaching. We can state our theory in philosophical or in religious language. Benedict's concepts, of course, were religious. Any of

us who may prefer to use philosophical terms may yet profit by consideration of a religious concept of authority and its implications. The author of the article herewith presented (A.B., St. John's; M.A., Ph.D., La Universidad Interamericana, Saltillo, Mexico) has taught in schools of three states, is author of "numerous scholarly works none of which have ever seen the light of day," and currently teaches languages and philosophy in college.

By **THOMAS P. SULLIVAN**

EACH year thousands of new instructors and an equal number of experienced instructors and professors are faced with the problem of discipline and authority in their classrooms. Should the instructor be a pal, or should he be iron fisted? Will the head of the department back him up in his disciplinary decisions or does his authority depend upon higher administration officials? Just exactly where does his authority come from? Perhaps he has no other authority than the force of his own personality.

Much has been written concerning various theories of discipline and authority. These writings present a multitude of philosophies and opinions. I would like to present here some ideas garnered from the writings of Benedict of Nursia.

Benedict was a Roman youth of noble birth who, disgusted by the wild 'goings-on' of the Roman youth of his day, left Rome to live as a hermit. Later he founded a monastery, the famed Monte Cassino, and an Order of monks which today still exists and flourishes.

In his Rule, Benedict states quite simply that all authority is derived from God. It is this authority that rules the universe and keeps the stars in their orbits. It is in obedience to this authority that the geese fly southward in the fall. In the spring the seed sprout and grow in answer to this command.

But man is different to a degree. Man is free. Because of this freedom, God has seen fit to allow man to participate in the authority that governs him. Man living in society has been given the right to choose other men to administer this authority. These men administer only. The power is not theirs. It is God's. Man simply administers. Whether or not men choose their rulers wisely is their affair. It is another concession to their freedom. The authority wielded by Communist Russia and that of the kind and loving father have the same base, the same source. In the former case, the authority is a warped and twisted travesty of the original, while in the latter case it more closely approximates its Divine model. But in any case it is not the authority that is wrong; it is man's application of the power that is evil.

In each community, therefore, the people have chosen men to administer part of the power in which God has allowed them to share. These men in turn appoint teachers to further administer this power. The teacher, then, is in the position of sharing in the Divine authority. He does not receive this authority of himself but because (however indirectly) he has been chosen by the people of his community to administer it. The teacher no longer has to worry about the origin or validity of his power. The teacher in company with all other duly appointed rulers represents the authority of God. Obedience to the teacher and to other civil authorities operating in their recognized sphere is obedience to God.

The instructor's problem shifts now from the origin of his authority to how it should be exercised. Now it has become a vastly more important item in his life. It is no longer the success or failure of an individual, but the perfect accomplishment of a Divine mandate. The ruler, be he teacher, mayor, or president, who misuses the authority he administers is to be deposed from his position. The teacher who fails to carry out successfully the task of ruling what has been given him fails his community.

Benedict states that the person in a position of command as is the teacher should know how to "mingle, as the occasion may require, gentleness with severity." He must learn how to rule by adapting himself to many dispositions. Benedict points out that with some, words of admoni-

tion will be sufficient; with others, more severe reprimands will be in order, and with still others he would have the authority resort to corporal punishment which is the only form of reproof that "some natures will understand."

The teacher must "... continue showing now the rigour of the master, now, the loving affection of the father, so as to sternly rebuke the undisciplined and restless and to exhort the obedient, mild, and patient to advance." Benedict makes the further point that the teacher must not betray his trust by giving way to the "temptation to turn a blind eye to offences for the sake of peace and a quiet life."

The teacher must remember that his administration of power must show no favoritism for "with God there is no respecting of persons."

Perhaps most important of all, the teacher should "show forth all goodness and holiness

by his deeds rather than by his words." The teacher who demands respect for his authority should in turn show forth his respect for the authority exercised by those placed above him. The departmental head and the dean should receive the respect due their position. Fellow teachers should be honored since they, too, have been chosen by the community to share in the administration of the Divine Will.

Finally, Benedict reminds us that we must be constantly mindful of what we are and to what we are called. We must frequently consider that we have been chosen by the community to administer over the youth a portion of the Fatherhood of God.

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Winter Issue

Decennial Year—Volume X, 1962

The Winter 1962 issue will begin the decennial year of this journal, a year for which special features in and supplementary to the journal are planned. Articles in the next issue will include: "The Adjunct Professor of Higher Education" by Arthur J. Dibden, Knox College; "Brainstorming in the College Classroom" by Wilson F. Wetzler, Manatee Junior College; "Can We Teach Patriotism?" by John R. Sala, Maxwell Air Force Base; "Current Research on Teaching Effectiveness" by Wilbert J. McKeachie, University of Michigan; "Eclectic Education at the Graduate Level" by James H. Stone, San Francisco State College; "Education, Halt!" by Max S. Marshall, University of California; "Faculty-Staff, a Major Problem" by Robert M. Crane, University of Illinois; "The Great Game" by William C. Budd, Western Washington College; "The House of William James" by Lucien Price; "Improving My Instruction" by D. G. Stout, Tennessee State College; "Sharing the Excitement of Teaching" by James H. Fadenrecht, Wheaton College; "Stimulation: Teacher's Goal" by Lyle M. Crist, Mount Union College; "The Teacher as Thinker Before His Class" by Sister M. Paul Francis, College of the Holy Names. There may be other articles also, reviews and listings of new books, Editorial: "The Dynamics of the Log."

A Professional Reading Shelf for College Faculties



It is notorious that faculty people read all they can (usually not enough) in their special fields but seldom about their teaching job. However, that many are beginning to read about teaching is shown in the growing sales of books about college and university

teaching and the steady growth of this journal. A professor of higher education (B.A., Cumberland; M.A., Chicago; Ph.D., Duke) with a distinguished record of contribution and service on three campuses, research and special studies, and author of articles and reviews in a dozen journals, has compiled a selected list of books for a faculty reading shelf on college and university teaching, the profession, and the advancement of those engaged in it.

By E. V. PULLIAS

DOUBTLESS some college teachers still have a strong prejudice against what they think of as professional reading in the field of education. The history of this feeling is long and the factors that produced it are complex. Fortunately, I believe, for the development of a great profession of teaching, the negative attitude toward the literature about college and university problems is decreasing. Fewer and fewer of us take pride in not knowing the research and theoretical writing of our profession.

College and university faculties carry heavy responsibility in our disturbed times. They, more than any other single group, are called upon to give mankind a proper vision of the future. In other simpler days it may have been enough for the faculty member to be a highly trained specialist, but now if he would meet his full responsibility he must be much more. It is increasingly important that he understand the nature and function of higher education taken as a whole in its modern setting. A large body of literature is growing up about higher education. This writing varies much in depth and insight, but in general it is good, and if read, thought about, and discussed will help faculties to rise to the high demands of this era.

As the literature in higher education increases

in quantity, there is a corresponding growth in quality and variety. These printed materials cover almost every phase of college and university education. In fact, the size and variety of the bibliography in higher education may seem baffling to the typical college teacher. Out of a list that runs to several thousand titles, and is increasing significantly each year, what is worth the teacher's limited reading time?

Let us look briefly at a few books published within the last five years to illustrate something of the variety of this literature.

Higher Education in Transition by Brubacher and Rudy is a careful survey of the development of higher education in the United States from 1636 to 1956. This book undertakes to show how our system of higher education came to be what it is. Atkinson in *College in a Yard* brings together thirty-nine essays by alumni of Harvard in answer to the query, What has Harvard meant to you and to the nation? The replies have such depth and sensitivity that they have important implications for all colleges and universities. Shryock's *The University of Pennsylvania Faculty: A Study of Higher Education* presents excellent thinking on the major problems facing college and university faculties—tenure, teaching and research, salaries, etc. Henderson's *Policies and Practices in Higher Education* describes the often unique "policies and practices" developed in the United States in response to the perennial problems in higher education. *The Two Ends of the Log* edited by Cooper brings together some of the best thinking now available on college teaching and college learning. Medsker's *The Junior College* is a comprehensive investigation of the institution in higher education which many educators believe must carry a major portion of the load of future college enrollment. *The Development of Academic Freedom in the United States* by Hofstadter and Metzger is a thoroughgoing analysis of the most vital problem in higher education.

These volumes are merely illustrations of the current literature in higher education. One wonders how many of the books in this sample the average college faculty member has examined. And yet more and more the faculty is expected to participate in the most fundamental decisions of the institution. Faculty discussions would be more enlightened and tolerant, and decisions more practical and wise, if a large proportion of the faculty were acquainted with some of the best thought available on higher education. Such reading enables the specialized faculty member to place his effort and that of his colleagues in the larger framework of the entire college or university effort and tradition.

From the rich literature about colleges and universities of which the titles mentioned above are mere illustrations, many colleges have developed special professional reading shelves for their faculties. Many of my students and colleagues who teach in colleges where there is no such shelf have expressed the belief that a professional collection would be very helpful. Hence, I should like to present some suggestions for the development of a professional reading shelf, selected and placed to create interest and to meet the particular needs of the faculty.

If the need is great and the interest strong, why doesn't the librarian order the books, put them on the shelves, and let that be the end of it? Most college libraries do have books on higher education scattered throughout the collection. They are classified in history, philosophy, psychology, education, general reference, and so on. As a rule, such holdings in higher education are relatively meager, and those available are seldom read by the general faculty. The simple expedient of providing a special collection on a conveniently located and attractively labeled shelf greatly increases interest and use. A faculty lounge or center may be preferable to a location in the library building. If the librarian, a member of the administrative staff, and representatives of the faculty cooperate in the establishment of the shelf and in the planning of its use, then the interest, discussion, and benefit will be greater still.

When the suggestion to establish a professional reading shelf is made, the problem of cost

is immediately raised. Fortunately, this is one project for which special money is relatively easy to secure. If there is interest among the faculty in building a professional shelf, the idea should be discussed with the president; likely he will be able to find a special gift for the purpose. If the institution is publicly supported, it may be necessary to assign special budget for it. An initial sum of \$500 to \$1,000, with an annual budget of \$50 to \$100, will do the job well for the average college or small university.

The greatest obstacle to progress or even change is inertia. Although few in a college or university would oppose the reading of good books or making them conveniently available, not many will take a positive interest in initiating a new project. The development of a professional reading shelf will bring satisfying results in heightened faculty morale, unity, and effectiveness.

Now we come to the most difficult task of all. What books should go on such a shelf? There are many excellent bibliographies in higher education, some very long and general, others narrowly specialized. Each committee responsible for building a shelf must be selective in terms of the nature of its local need. Over a period of many years now, I have been studying the reactions of prospective and in-service college teachers to books in higher education. On the basis of these observations and my own judgment, I have compiled a list which a committee on a Faculty Professional Reading Shelf might use as a beginning guide. This list, limited to 75 titles, follows.

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New Books

Getting Out of a Straight-Jacket

MEMO TO A COLLEGE FACULTY MEMBER by Earl J. McGrath. A publication of the Institute of Higher Education. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. vii + 54 pp.

A Review by ORDWAY TEAD

I URGENTLY recommend this brochure to all the readers of this journal. It focuses on one of the really important problems in the conduct of higher education, namely the interrelation of the following factors: teachers' salaries, teaching load, size of classes, number of curricular offerings, the course requirements to fulfill majors and total number of faculty needed.

The study is thus obviously related to the well-known volume by Beardsley Ruml and Donald H. Morrison, "Memo to a College Trustee." But it comes to quite other conclusions based upon its first-hand study of a representative group of colleges.

After several chapters of findings on the several factors enumerated above the brochure in Chapter 5 sets forth certain conclusions as to the relation of college presidents, deans, and department heads to the whole attack upon curricular evaluation and reorganization in the direction of educational justification and financial impact of the all too prevalent practices of colleges today.

It points out the difficulties under which presidents and deans labor in the effort to integrate and focus departmental offerings toward valid educational objectives including reasonable financial economies. The obstructive tactics against such efforts as exercised by department heads and other faculty members are dwelt upon with accuracy and vigor as reflecting typical contemporary experience. Procedures for increasing flexibility and disinterested over-all judgments and discussions about curriculum integration are spelled out. And stress is laid on the fact that there has to be leadership in this process and that some few institutions have found their way out of this inexorable if understandable straight-jacket.

What is ultimately recommended is the creation of a committee composed of members of the faculty, administrators, and trustees to effectuate needful critical scrutiny of current practices and desirable alterations.

The total picture presented is not heartening although it is recognized that there are qualifying considerations in the policies now typically pursued in departmental empire-building.

There are profound educational issues underlying all these subtle and interrelated factors. They go to the heart of any objective deliberation on how a college is to provide a vital and rewarding education.

Admittedly this whole problem is complex but the forces of tradition will not be brought to book on a new and creative scrutiny until all faculty members can come to see the bearing of these interdependent factors both upon their own well-being and the integrity of the educational experience.

Dr. McGrath concludes his study in the following words:

All members of the faculties in liberal arts colleges have a substantial personal stake in these curriculum reforms. They will be able to retain their present rights and responsibilities with regard to the sharing of the curriculum only as they willingly and objectively attempt to bring the offerings of the several departments within defensible bounds. As they do this they will be acting in part out of self interest, because their own economic well-being will be determined by their efforts to strengthen the total instructional program by cutting away courses which are not needed. But in doing so they will also be taking action which may very well determine whether the liberal arts college as such can survive in the entire enterprise of American higher education. This is a mission worthy of the dedication and the effort of every faculty member in the liberal arts colleges of the nation.

Fiction Both True and Amusing

A SMALL ROOM, a Novel by May Sarton. New York: W. W. Norton & Co. 1961. 249 pp. \$3.95.

A Review by ORDWAY TEAD

IT IS DIFFICULT to get the ring of authenticity into college novels. There are often exaggerations or distortions which mislead the reader and cast subtle discredit on one or another aspect of the college scene. May Sarton's newest novel is gratifyingly free of these limitations. It has the quality of valid and accurate depiction of the realities as those of us who "have been there before" are sure to find esthetically delightful and intellectually satisfying. This is achieved in part by the author's own first-hand encounter as a

campus faculty member with that whereof she writes, plus her immersion in college activity as lived in the family of a famous professor who was her father.

In part, also, I find the vigor of the novel in the reality and insight as to the central angle of theme she has chosen. For the unifying issue elaborated seems to me essentially to be a confronting of the always provocative question: What should be the emotional involvement of the teacher with the student?

This perennial—and for the teacher—subtle tension is here dramatized in an incident, vividly presented, of a student's effort through plagiarizing an English theme to retain the favor of a professor of strong personality who holds herself somewhat aloof from a genuinely personal contact with the girl. The issues of conflict with the student honor system committee, with the teacher's colleagues, with the college president's concern for a large donation expected from an elderly trustee with a strong aversion to psychiatric aid for students as a college obligation, all are vividly interwoven into a plot of suspense which has genuine plausibility.

The faculty cross-currents of judgment on the dishonest incident in both social and official gatherings are detailed in a way both true and amusing.

The denouement should be left to the reader to discover.

I do, in short, recommend this as a worthwhile and thought-provoking volume from which college faculty members would get at once enjoyment and edification.

For Students and Those Interested in Students

COLLEGE EDUCATION AS PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT by Margaret B. Fisher and Jeanne L. Noble. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1960. xv + 375 pp. \$4.95.

A Review by ORDWAY TEAD

THE authors' own definition of the purpose and the intended audience for which this book is designed: "This book is for college students, or for high school graduates about to become students, or for people who are interested in students." It is divided into three parts—"the student as self;" "the student as a member of the college;" "the student as adult: the choices and resources of college life."

These three central themes are elaborated in eleven chapters which offer advice also about the "choice of a vocation, the choice of a mate, the choice of a way of life."

It will thus be seen that here is a comprehensive and knowledgeable setting forth of the crucial issues which one's college career confronts. The authors' grasp of the whole field is comprehensive and right-minded. Their exposition should have substantial value to the readers who will take it all in and be guided accordingly.

I should suppose, however, that a more rewarding use of the book would be for it to be used in a freshman orientation course with group discussion under a sympathetic teacher or guidance worker.

My critical comment is addressed to the level of writing. It strikes me as too difficult and too abstruse for freshmen or high school seniors. And perhaps they are offered almost too much good advice to be absorbed at a single reading. Freshmen should be urged to reread this volume as seniors and discover some of the meanings and messages they undoubtedly will miss at a first reading.

Higher Expectancy From Faculty

POLICIES AND PRACTICES IN FACULTY EVALUATION by Committee on College Teaching, Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1961.

A Review by ORDWAY TEAD

THE Committee on College Teaching of the American Council on Education issued in April 1961 a report entitled "Policies and Practices in Faculty Evaluation." I recommend a careful reading of it by faculty members not because it supplies any new and specific answers to this perennially unresolved problem, but because of its honest analysis of the elements of the problem. Any college faculty group seeking a fresh confronting of this issue will find here a resumé of current practices with some tentative appraisals leading essentially to the conclusion that our ignorance is grave and our efforts to date not adequate to the importance of maintaining the quality of teaching which assures student involvement.

I would observe that not enough attention has yet been generally given to the leadership of presidents and deans in explicitly pushing for and rewarding quality in the teaching process. Faculty meetings, for example, can come to grips with

issues of teaching standards and methods, with the centering of attention on the various ways and means of the successful teaching process. Outside speakers can be brought in to stimulate new thinking in these directions; relevant reading can be suggested. And, importantly, the readily identifiable faculty members who are resting on their laurels and lying down on the job can be prodded tactfully but firmly to a fresh attack upon their material. It is a poor administrative alibi to say, as I have heard it said, that a few "snap" courses ought to be tolerated because in a student's five course program there has to be some easement so that if he studies three or four of them earnestly he can have one offering in which it is notoriously easy to get by. Surely the answer to this rationalization is a new programming policy requiring only three, not five courses at a time in all of which high teaching standards are upheld.

We are in need of a more courageous and forthright approach on this score with the administrator and department heads taking a bolder stand and a more explicit and sustained "shot in the arm" with teachers. We have heard much stress recently on a higher level of expectancy from students. Why not apply this equally with those members of the faculty who need fresh stimulation?

A Sprightly Contemporary Look

CAMPUS U.S.A., PORTRAITS OF AMERICAN COLLEGES IN ACTION by David Boroff. New York: Harper and Brothers. 1961. xiv + 210 pp. \$4.50.

A Review by J. KENNETH MUNFORD

THE SKETCHES of ten U. S. colleges and universities in this book sometimes look more like doodling on a tourist's note pad than finished portraits. The author-artist tosses his notes together all too frequently in jumbled incoherence.

Despite its faults, however, despite transparent attempts to shock, a certain lack of cohesion, and the numerous parenthetical asides, the book provides a sprightly contemporary look at American higher education. Instead of the professor-to-professor approach most of us take in visiting other campuses, the author makes a strenuous effort to record samples of student opinion. To be sure, in his visits to campuses Mr. Boroff talked with faculty and administrators but he also watched students in action—in class, in living groups, and at parties. He talked with them about their ambitions and phobias, their traditions and

innovations, emotional drives and discouragements. These he weaves into his ten portraits.

Harvard he depicts as a well-mannered colossus which "contemplates its abundance with quiet pleasure"—dignified, imperial, humorous, modest.

Wisconsin presents a picture of teeming diversity of campus life with groups at grips with one another—Greek vs. Independent, ROTC vs. anti-ROTC, scholars vs. football players ("Saturday's children, neglected the rest of the week").

The Associated Colleges at Claremont, California, (Pomona, Scripps, Claremont Men's College, Harvey Mudd College, and Claremont Graduate School) the author calls "an upbeat academia." Since "Claremont triumphs over problems which harass the rest of the country" by adroitly combining the irresistible principle of growth in higher education with individuality, Mr. Boroff expresses great hopes that other groups of colleges may develop successfully along the same lines in the future.

Swarthmore's personality he pictures as "bookish yet high spirited; Quaker yet mundane, with that heavy overlay of sophistication only the young can muster; inward yet careerist; bold yet conservative; bohemian yet fiercely social-minded."

The portrait of Brooklyn College—where the author attended and where he taught at one time—is probably the best in the book. It leaves an impression of a vigorous, young institution serving hordes of commuters and—despite certain shortcomings—giving them a pretty good education.

Parsons College in Iowa he picks as an example of a small, private liberal arts college which five years ago was going to seed but which today is a burgeoning, high-spirited concern because a new president "applied the principles of good corporate management to higher education."

Birmingham-Southern College provides an illustration of genteel tradition on a Southern campus. The author expresses a hope that it may "offer the guidance for which many of its earnest students, caught between an elevated Christian morality and an inherited racism, yearn."

Three portraits concern higher education for women at Smith College, "for all-around girls," at Sarah Lawrence College, "for the bright, bold and beautiful," and in the graduate school of the University of Michigan, "a limbo for women." At Smith, the author found an intent seriousness and an earnest evaluation of the paths laid open to women through college education. Sarah Law-

rence he found far less gaudy than its encrusted legends, but still dedicated to "orthodox Deweyism with a heavy overlay of an older bookish emphasis."

"Ironically," Mr. Boroff points out in his discussion of Sarah Lawrence, "progressive ideas in education, which had their matrix in the university-spawned philosophies of William James, Dewey, Whitehead, and others, have been applied largely to lower schools. (In the process, they have gone through an unhappy dilution.) Colleges generally remained impervious to them. The principal reason is that colleges are conservative institutions. Professors have traditionally been authority figures, and the college classroom enjoys a peculiar inviolability. Progressive ideas require a recasting of the teacher's role, and impairment, too, of his honorific status. He has to enter into a dynamic, uncharted relationship with his students. He has to involve himself in the dust and turmoil of the student's world. Who would willingly surrender the smug pleasures of the old relationship for the treacherous uncertainties of the new? Subject matter is much safer and stabler than students.

"Nevertheless," he goes on, "Progressivism has been seeping upwards to its own sources in the intellectual highlands," and Sarah Lawrence has led the way, Boroff thinks, but Antioch, Bennington, and Reed are catching up.

The limbo pictured for women in graduate study is indeed a gloomy one but the author ends on an optimistic note. He believes that in the next ten years women may be able to take up the scholarly life without the embarrassment, discrimination, and punishment they now must bear.

Mr. Boroff's canvasses leave many patches uncompleted, yet in color, line, form, perspective, and design they contain many admirable qualities and include many delightful details.

The Professor's Seven Ages

PROFESSOR: PROBLEMS AND REWARDS IN COLLEGE TEACHING by Fred B. Millett. New York: The Macmillan Company. 1961. x + 189 pp. \$3.50.

THE NOBLEST PROFESSION in the world: thus my college roommate frequently rated his intended profession, the law. "The Professor," written by a professor who has taught at Queen's University in Canada, the University of Chicago, Carnegie Institute of Technology, and Wesleyan University through a career in which he had en-

thusiasm for and won distinction in his profession, makes no extravagant claim for the academic career. He describes it straightforwardly on a sevenfold pattern: college, graduate school, instructorship, assistant professorship, associate professorship, full professorship, retirement. Retirement, the seventh of the professor's "ages," receives only brief treatment but "is, or may be, the crown of the professor's life activities" according to his personality and temperament, "a profoundly satisfactory reward for his years of strenuous educational activity."

After a background sketch of the professorship in the United States from the time of the colonial colleges to the present, a second chapter indicates the traits important for a congenial professorial career: interest in substantial reading, a liking for study, ability to work consecutively and strenuously at intellectual tasks, appreciation of teaching quality as exemplified by some of his teachers, a liking for people and working with people. The young person looking toward the academic life needs to prepare himself for admission to and effective work in the kind of college in which he would like to do his undergraduate work. In high school he should take English, history, mathematics, science, and a foreign language. In these preparatory years he not only should fulfill his academic requirements with as much scholarly distinction as possible but should at least attempt to discover and define the areas of his deepest intellectual interest.

The undergraduate years are sketched with recognition of the proper place of youthful and extracurricular activities, but stress is placed upon the importance of a sound liberal education, modern languages, well chosen electives to broaden his knowledge, a deepening of his knowledge and scholarly competence by pursuit of a major, seminar, and thesis, and perhaps most important: "the discovery of oneself," "such a clear-eyed view of himself that he will not have an exaggerated conception of his performance in graduate school or in his later professional life."

The fourth chapter is a guidebook for graduate study for the prospective professor. The concern of the graduate school is with the production of scholars. Its traditional unconcern with the production of *teachers* is accounted for: "The only advantage the student derives from his experience as an assistant or teaching fellow is the acquisition of teaching experience, but this advantage is minor, since graduate faculties and

prospective employers assume that a Doctor's degree is adequate insurance that its possessor can teach."

The fifth chapter describes the "academic arenas" where the trained scholar may teach or engage in research: liberal arts colleges, universities state and private, junior colleges, technological institutions. "It is possible and perhaps desirable that a person bent on academic advancement and recognition should move from one type of institution to another."

The ladder of academic ranks, tenure, the American Association of University Professors, and other aspects of life and advancement in the profession are the theme of the sixth chapter, followed by chapters on "The Professor's Job" and a "Professor's Day" with details of what it really is like to be a professor, and a chapter on "Shadows in the Picture"—the problems, frustrations, and discouragements that must be faced and surmounted.

The final chapter dealing with "The Professor's Rewards" is a sincere, sober setting forth of the economic, psychological, social, and intellectual gains in the academic life. The greatest hope of the profession is "that it may contribute significantly to the education of generation after generation of students." As said in the Foreword by Charles W. Cole, the author "has been fair, thoughtful, and factual in describing what it is like to be a professor."

DMG

The Frontier of Teaching Theory

FREEING INTELLIGENCE THROUGH TEACHING by Gardner Murphy. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1961. 64 pp.

WILL THERE EVER BE a technology of teaching, precise enough to deserve the name and yet diverse and flexible enough to utilize all the incalculable individual differences of teacher and taught? Reading Gardner Murphy's John Dewey Society lecture "Freeing Intelligence Through Teaching" we can take hope that teaching in theory and practice will some day advance beyond its current levels, but we may not expect the progress to be rapid. He baffles us and is himself perhaps baffled, and he ends with a question rather than a finding or assertion. But it is a profound question:

If, however, the human organism is not so constructed as to allow its central nervous system to operate independently of its autonomic system, its glands of internal secretion, and its sensory and

motor equipment, if such rationality as it has depends upon biological functions with an evolutionary past and an instrumental adaptive present, would it not be more likely that the teacher would teach well if he accepted the full biology both of the pupil and of himself? And would he not—in a society composed of individuals—do a more constructive job if he conceived education transactionally as a bio-social process, in which rationality is bio-socially defined and the real, instead of being placed solely at the door of the rational, is seen as the creature of the life process itself?

This little book does not take long to read. It deals with what we all profess to be doing, namely teaching. If its message should seem obscure, would that not suggest that we need more knowledge about what the teaching-learning process really is? If the glimpse of a frontier as here given will stimulate us to explore the better known areas, we might use the footnotes, twenty-six of them, as a reading list. Instinct, reason, motivation, emotion, the dynamics of personality and of learning, "the real that is outside of us, the real that is inside of us," creativity—all these are proper concerns of us who undertake to teach. If our teaching shall really free intelligence, we need to pursue it in a knowledgeable way.

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Ivory Tower and Market Place

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A CAMPUS is meant to be in some degree an ivory tower, a place from which mundane demands and distractions are at least in part shut out to permit study, contemplation, and the nurture of intellect and spirit. Even today when communication and transportation miracles have broken down myriads of barriers, classrooms, laboratories, libraries, and study rooms provide a fair measure of that detachment from life which appears desirable as preparation for life.

The "cooperative plan" or "work-study plan" as exemplified at the University of Cincinnati, Antioch College, and scores of other institutions in varying degree, typically involves the placing of one-half a student body on campus and one-half in business and industry, the two groups replacing each other in rotation. It utilizes both ivory tower and market place. There are many modifications of the plan. Eight advantages are commonly found and other possible advantages are noted also. This revolutionary idea was initi-

ated at the University of Cincinnati in 1906 by the late Herman Schneider.

This book reports a study by a committee of twelve men headed by Dr. Ralph W. Tyler. The two authors headed the working staff. The chapters include data on colleges using the work-study plan, work-study as seen by colleges and students, comparative abilities and achievements of students, financial and educational facilities aspects, and problems. Tabulations are abundant.

Conclusions state that:

"The academic potential of cooperative students is equal to that of non-cooperative students." "The cooperative experience provides meaningful opportunities for the student to see the relevance of theory to practical situations and to practice making applications." "Cooperative education makes a positive contribution to society by attracting able young people to college who might otherwise never consider continuing their education beyond the high school." "Business and industry are enthusiastic about cooperative education." "Because of the financial remuneration received by students for their cooperative work, the cooperative plan makes higher education feasible for many talented youth who might otherwise find college prohibitive." "Contrary to frequent criticism of cooperative education, students are able and do enter into the life of the college as effectively as non-cooperative students." "The five years of college required by most cooperative programs is viewed by more than 85 percent of students and graduates as no handicap." "Shifting of students from classwork during campus periods to jobs during the work periods and back is not a serious educational problem." "The cooperative program makes possible the more effective use of college facilities." "The vast majority of cooperative students felt that their original hopes for selecting cooperative education were realized."

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Home and Family

FAMILY CLOTHING by Mildred Thurow and Oris Glisson. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1961. ix + 412 pp. \$8.75.

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HOME ECONOMICS EDUCATION is "a program of instruction that is designed to prepare students for home responsibilities and/or for a profession." The definition includes men as well as women as they share, though usually to a lesser extent, in home responsibilities. A man may enjoy at least the pictures in the "Family Clothing" book, many of which are lovely as in a fashion

show while many others depict clothing for men and boys.

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Good features are suggested readings and a comprehensive index. For a revision I could suggest some omissions.

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There are twelve chapters dealing with the modern home economics program, family life and its needs, knowing students and guiding their learning, determining objectives, learning experiences, and materials, and evaluation as a continuing concern throughout the teaching process. Challenging changes and developments in home economics teaching in the future are suggested in the closing pages but the final note is down to earth, quoting Herbert Hoover: "Wisdom consists not so much in knowing what to do in the ultimate as in knowing what to do next." DMG

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Educational Research for Classroom Teachers

by JOHN B. BARNES

Director, Division of Educational
Research and Field Services
College of Education
Arizona State University

The book serves the general field of educational research in terms of its basic methods and techniques; then, importantly, shows three large areas of educational work in which research may be applied:

- ▶ the study of individuals
- ▶ the study of classroom groups or subgroups
- ▶ the study of teaching and learning problems

Each of these areas is illustrated by real cases which open up practical ways to apply research techniques to the study of many kinds of teacher-administrator problems.

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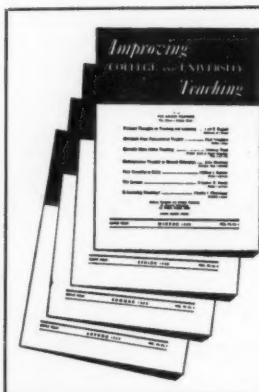
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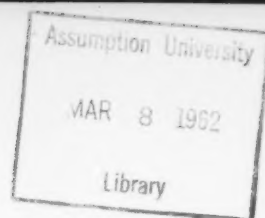
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